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CHILDHOOD EDUCATION

Journal of the

INTERNATIONAL KINDERGARTEN UNION

FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF

NURSERY-KINDERGARTEN-PRIMARY EDUCATION

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CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, official organ of the *International Kindergarten Union* and the *National Council of Primary Education*, advances nursery-kindergarten-primary education by presenting:

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All who are interested in childhood education from its special classroom problems to its national and international aspects are interested in CHILDHOOD EDUCATION, *the Journal of the International Kindergarten Union for the Advancement of Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education.*

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But the Air's so appetizin'; and the landscape through the haze
Of a crisp and sunny morning of the airly autumn days
Is a pitcur' that no painter has the colorin' to mock—
When the frost is on the punkin and the fodder's in the shock.

JAMES WHITCOMB RILEY

Individual Differences

IT APPEARS to be well within the truth to say that the most fruitful source of problems in education is *differences between people.* To bring this home to one, he needs only to imagine what education would be like if all people were alike in ability and ambition. We would then need no such things as mental and educational measurements, marking systems, x, y, z grouping, elastic curricula, educational and vocational guidance, and special methods for various grades of ability. All pupils could be treated in precisely the same manner and we would need to keep only such records as the names and ages of the pupils and what courses they have had.

But education is not so simple as this. Anyone who doubts that individual differences play a large part in the kindergarten and the primary needs only to glance at the contents of this issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. *The contributors point to the sane recognition of individual differences as being the very heart of early education.* We find here recorded a number of the most vital current practices and developments in this field. Mr. Stenquist points out how a research bureau may aid in meeting individual differences. Teachers everywhere are likely to look to the research bureau to hand out such aid, but Mr. Stenquist makes it clear that the teachers must coöperate. This is necessary not merely because of the limitations of the staff in the bureau, but primarily because the teachers need to keep in close touch with the work. It is one of the functions of the research bureau to direct the work of the teachers along reliable and comparable lines. The teachers themselves must do the basal work.

Kindergarten and primary school teachers will gain many helpful suggestions from Miss Sipple's account of the elastic program as worked out in the Park School of Baltimore. The word "suggestions" is chosen intentionally. Miss Sipple has no ready-made devices to offer; she has only suggestions and principles that other teachers must adapt through their own ingenuity. *Modern educational practices require teachers of a professional and not of a clerical type of mind.*

Mrs. Bliss gives an illuminating account of work with five-year-olds in the Lincoln School of Teachers College. These five-year-olds do not go to school in the traditional sense of the term, but they meet together in the Lincoln School for interesting and healthful group living. The teachers here succeed where the home sometimes fails.

Dr. Johnson emphasizes the individual as the core of nursery school procedure. The nursery school director "should continue a student interest in the effect of particular stimulus patterns upon particular children rather than to assume or to work upon a definite curriculum of activity."

The practical recognition of individual differences in a Teachers College is interestingly presented by Miss Baker of Evanston, Illinois.

Miss Frazee of Baltimore points out how intelligence and achievement tests, the study of the psychology of childhood, and intelligent supervision are making over the old Procrustean curriculum into a lane of delight for children. It is refreshing to read how administrative and supervisory officers are falling in line with progressive and common sense movements in education.

This issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION makes it clear that individual differences are being wholesomely recognized in the field of education.

W. C. RUEDIGER.

The Three-Year-Old at School

BUFORD JOHNSON
Johns Hopkins University

THE Nursery School is fast becoming an educational institution. It is well that parents, teachers, and guardians of children understand the procedure of such institutions and view them as a challenge to family training. The mistake is often made of attributing errors in child training to parental standards which should be laid at the door of the family standards. These are not to be considered exactly the same. Economic and social conditions often determine the way the parents act more than their own knowing and willing can combat. Society as a whole, the civilization of today, is limiting the possibilities of proper development of the child in the home by limitations of space, of social activities, of extra family groupings, of trained helpers, and by excess of certain types of stimulation such as numerous toys, numerous adults, a multitude of noises, lavish personal contacts and attention.

At the Child Institute of the Psychology Laboratory of the Johns Hopkins University we have a group of children ranging in age from 20 months to 5 years. The larger number of these children are three-year-olds. For proper development at this age it is essential that the child should have a system of habits which make for control of his body in ordinary and in exploratory activities, for practical emotional control, and for some independent constructive activity.

The three-year-old requires the exercise of his body and of the various portions of his body to the extent that these movements may become tools for his social adaptation and for the solution of his problems. For these children we provide ample floor space indoors for bodily activity. They stretch out upon the floor in their building and push blocks across the room when serving as trains. Each child has a table for drawing and as much manilla drawing paper as he desires; and drawing at this age is not only manual but arm activity. These children like to tug tables and chairs across the room. Outdoors they pull wagons laden with stones, with boxes, with sand, with other children. One three-year-old boy pulled the wagon in which there were three other children for a number of turns about the yard. Again a group of three piled boxes so high in the wagon that a delicate handling was necessary and they succeeded in pulling them about the yard. Children of this age delight in climbing upon boxes graduated from a small box to a piano box; in placing planks upon these big boxes and climbing upon them one after the other; in sitting astride upon banisters or playground apparatus similar to the step rails; in swinging, running, jumping, digging, shoveling, and building. The contrast between the child who has such opportunities and the one who has not may be illustrated by the following cases. A five-year-old came

to the Institute for an examination. He was shy, fearful, fretful, over-protected, slow in his mental and social responses. The mother observed some three-year-olds astride the rail, sailing down the slide, climbing high upon the boxes. She expressed great concern over it and said her boy could not be persuaded to do such things. His timidity and her own fear had prevented him. One such case, a four-year-old, spent six weeks in the Institute before he overcame his fear of sliding. It is not the specific act of sliding or climbing that is so significant. It is the fearful attitude of the child, which retards his learning of acts essential for group adaptation. Children are ruthless and unless he can play the game he is put out or ignored. One little boy stood around for weeks just watching others. These others would sometimes go up to him and push him, probably experimenting with his possibilities since he displayed so little activity.

It is not easy for home life to offer proper facilities for these activities and proper supervision. The teacher or observer in the Nursery School must be alert in preventing serious hurts but at the same time she must not interfere more than is essential with the initiative of the child. She must be able to suggest, often indirectly, the type of activity a particular child needs for building into other acts later. At the age of three the child should not be concerned so much with the making of the movement nor fearful to undertake many forms of activity. His attention should be focused upon the expression of his interests through these movements. Children who enter the Child Institute at the age of two are usually much more agile at the age of three than the child who enters at three. The stimulus of a group makes for this development and also for less self-consciousness about it. Whether the child has temper tantrums, refuses to eat, is very timid and fearful, is dependent upon adults for attention, or is a wholesome lively youngster perhaps guilty of all these acts at some time or other, we are first interested in his general bodily activity.

Special exercises in movements to music are given twice a week. By some these exercises might be called rhythmic dancing. Some studies we are making of children's responses to rhythmic stimuli tend to show that our general impressions of rhythm in response are often fallacies. The child who moves easily and with seeming enthusiasm is often accounted rhythmic while a check-up shows other less active children are more regular in responses. These dancing exercises to music are excellent for bringing into play all the muscles. By skilful suggestions and the use of large colored balloons special exercises are introduced and definite suggestions for relaxation are carried out. If properly handled these responses tend to free the child from self-consciousness, to produce grace and skill in bodily movements and to bring about an appreciation of differences in musical patterns.

Emotional control comes through exercise of the emotions. In some homes emotional uncontrol from the outsider's viewpoint is a well controlled response on the part of the child who has learned to get what he wants thereby. The child has a legitimate right to emotions but unless he is given an opportunity to learn control of them by exercising them in accordance with social demands he can never make a satisfactory adjust-

ment in life. The child has many impulses, some of which he can express with pleasure to himself and not harm; others are injurious to himself or to others. Several three-year-olds tended to run heedlessly across the room where some object was wanted. In running they would frequently knock another child down. In one case the form "I am sorry" had been learned but not the inhibition of the running. This child had difficulty in inhibiting many impulses such as to eat or not to eat; to take things from other children. After months of careful supervision he inhibited the impulse to go into a foreign play space after forbidden goods even when enticed by another boy.

A child of 2½ years was requiring from two to three hours of his mother's time in dressing him and in giving him his breakfast. It is the policy at the Institute to have these routine acts done as smoothly, as promptly, and as unemotionally as is possible. This child was slow to adapt to such a program because old habits had to be broken. However he did learn and took pleasure in helping himself. The emotions play an important part in the life of the child. His experiences are multiplied through emotional reactions. Parents take him for a ride and into new situations if he is emotional in response to their going, so the child early forms a disastrous habit of crying every time mother or father leaves the house. This carries over into crying whenever left by parent. Several three-year-old children cried each morning for weeks when the parent left. In some cases the child was immediately content when parent was out of sight. The crying has often become automatic and not highly emotional. If interesting experiences are provided for a child without his solicitations he soon learns to take pleasure in the experience and is not burdened by the additional emotion of fearing the deprivation of an experience.

Fear in children must be handled with care and patience. A particular fear can be broken down and desirable responses substituted. The child who fears to go down the stairs alone or runs at the sight of a dog can be made much happier by conditioning other reactions to such stimuli—to feed the dog, to sing a song in coming down the steps. The observer of children must note the origin of new fears and aid the child in developing a method of attack upon new situations which does not throw caution to the wind but prevents a fear habit. The behavior problems of temper tantrums and of fears are primarily solved through parental cooperation in such modes of attack.

An emotional habit of difficulty to break is the abnormal outlet taken by children who have become self-centered, self-conscious, and recipients of too much attention with opportunity for too little independence of action. Nail-biting, thumb and finger-sucking, stammering, and often enuresis persist until four and five years of age because of such habits.

In the Institute the attention of the child is directed toward external objects. Material for constructive activity is provided. Aimless activity is of little avail but if the child can become interested in production work, these tendencies will more quickly disappear. They frequently disappear entirely except when the child is under emotional stress or is fatigued. In some cases they are conditioned by particular situations as lying down. The child

must be freed from the irritability due to restraint and fault-finding even if he is negatively encouraged thereby in persistence of the habit. Don'ts and remonstrances are not used. Substitute prohibiting responses are encouraged, as letting nails grow long for polishing. Some re-enforcing desire against the practice is sought and for such young children is often found.

It is evident that the child at three requires productive activity for development and adjustment to life's demands as does the adult who has become mentally ill through failures to adjust. The psychotherapy practiced in psychopathic hospitals tends to the focusing of attention upon material for constructive use. The child seeks material for constructions even though it be necessary for him to destroy ready-made objects to attain it. The numerous toys with which children are surrounded are great handicaps to their proper mental and emotional development. Those toys which can be used as a balloon for blowing up and flying or floating are good. Many small articles and toys serve to magnify an imaginary life rather than to aid in meeting real situations. Blocks of many shapes from the lumber company, ends of kegs from another factory, spools, large and small, all serve for making a wagon and many other objects. A box which the three-year-old can saw into a house with windows and doors is a joy even if dirty and black from the weather. Wooden material of many sorts from the ten-cent store offer a wealth of material for the use of the child of this age. There are large button molds to be painted and strung, clothes pins, bread boards, tongue depressors and such, that afford material for hours of construction. An abundant supply of drawing paper, colored crayons, plasticine, paint with brushes large and small, will repay any mother or teacher of these children through the products that result. It is important that too much material should not be given at once and that new material should be introduced at intervals for suggesting desirable activities.

Such an environment for the three-year-old offers opportunity for controlled study of the child. Records of his group behavior are related to the performances under test conditions and each record used for analysis of the other. Among the problems under investigation are the tendencies of the child to be excited under different types of stimulation, the degree to which he resists a barrier or difficulty, early manifestations of preferential handedness, and relative efficiency in the acquisition of simple skills.

It is evident that the adaptation of the environment to the child's needs is a psychological problem. The physical needs in the way of proper nutrition and prevention from blights or infections are assumed a minimal essential in such an environment. Those who undertake the supervision of such groups should have a foundation in psychology and should continue a student interest in the effect of particular stimulus patterns upon particular children rather than to assume or to work upon a definite curriculum of activity. Development is so rapid during these years a knowledge of the six-year-old does not give one an understanding of the child at three. The reverse is more likely to be true for an understanding of the mental development of the child during the first four years is the best basis for understanding human behavior even in adults.

An Elastic Program for Five-Year-Olds

ETHEL H. BLISS

The Lincoln School of Teachers College

NOTE: During the year 1927–1928 the Lincoln School of Teachers College extended its twelve-year program to include a group of five-year-old children with Mrs. Ethel Bliss in charge of the class. Among the members of the staff who cooperated in developing the program for this group were the school physician, the psychologist, psychiatrist, nurse, and special teachers in music, physical education, and art. Helpful suggestions were made also by members of the departments of health and of education at Teachers College.

At the initiating of the program it was agreed by the parents of the children and by the staff that no work in the skill subjects as such would be included, that is, there would be no formal instruction in reading, number, or writing.

A thorough examination of published materials bearing on the nature and needs of five-year-olds furnished many helpful suggestions but provided little definite guidance in developing an all-round program and so the year grew into one of intensive study of the individual needs of the children in the group. This necessitated the keeping of records on health, habits, attitudes, and the activities engaged in by both individuals and the group.

—REBECCA J. COFFIN.

A PROGRAM which is seriously attempting to foster the all-round development of five-year-olds should have for a basis a sympathetic study of every member of the group and in this study close cooperation with the home is a vital factor. Developing such a program means keeping in mind each child's health and his emotional and social adjustments. It means giving opportunity for creative self-expression on the one hand and in building readiness for the skills on the other hand. It necessitates being constantly on the look-out for new materials and for ways of using the old to better advantage. It means developing a rich and varied content program which in some of its phases would engage every member of the group.[1] In addition to recording each child's history, notes on the significant happenings in a day, accounts of individual experiences and of trips, imaginative stories and verse all help to show a child's development and make clear the points at which he most needs help.

What, then, were a few of the ways used in this particular class for finding the individual needs? A conference with the father or mother of each child proved invaluable in furnishing information about the child's interests as well as his difficulties. These conferences resulted in an effort to find some of the reasons for individual difficulties and in an effort to work out ways of meeting these difficulties in the home as well as in the school.

[1] See Criteria for Selecting Units of Work, pp. 29–41, Curriculum Making in an Elementary School by the Staff of the Elementary Division of the Lincoln School. Ginn and Company, 1927.

Another important means of finding some of the individual needs was through both informal and standard tests. Physical examinations were given at the beginning and at the close of the year; each child had an individual intelligence examination; tests for motor skill and motor coordination, for speech difficulties and for vocabulary and number sense were used. Ability to attend and to follow directions was checked. Emotional reactions were noted in certain situations.

A third and very important source of information as to individual needs was the period for free creative work, a time in which individual differences and outstanding interests would be in strong evidence.

In order to help the reader understand something of what was involved in meeting the needs of the children in this group a few facts are given concerning them. There were seventeen children in the group, eight girls and nine boys, all with good intelligence and varied interests. All had educated parents and came from interesting homes. Five of the group had a noticeable amount of individual care by the mother and eight had nurses or governesses. Eight had some speech difficulty, two were left-handed, and four were noticeable for emotional difficulties. Five had an unusual vocabulary and fund of general information, three had decided artistic ability, and three had keen musical appreciation and sense of rhythm. One was very shy, three very sensitive to loud noises, one afraid of animals, one of high places, and two were afraid of venturing into new situations.

Having found some of the individual needs, what were some of the ways in which the needs were met? The greatest opportunity for meeting individual needs comes through the development of a rich content based on the interests and abilities of the individuals in question. On the first day of school the room presented a variety of materials. Large building blocks were invitingly present, the easel and paints stood ready for use, the work benches were supplied with hammer and nails. Suitable pieces of wood were at hand. On the different tables were games, paper and crayons.

Most of the girls went to housekeeping, three of the boys to building with blocks, three to the bench, and two boys and two girls began to draw. Interest in house building and homemaking continued with both boys and girls from the first of the year when each individual built an individual home until the latter part of the year when all built a home together and each one helped to furnish it.

Pleasure in pets was also strong with most of the group. Twelve out of seventeen had pets at home, which they brought to school from time to time to share with the group. Here is a story N. told about her dog, Peter, who turned out to be a mother dog after she had been named:

"One day last summer I was going away. Peter wasn't feeling very good and we shut her up in the barn. When I came back Anna told me Peter had one pup. Peter always wants puppies and puppies and puppies." A. told of Pepsy, his dog, who was lost and came back on Christmas day and "was the best Christmas present of all." The photograph of A. with her little bird, Hoppity, stayed in the school several days. She loved to tell how he was found with a broken leg, how she helped

nurse him until he was "all well" and then how she let him fly South in the Fall. J. was very much interested in telling the group about catching a salt water fish which he tried to keep in salted fresh water with unhappy results. P. on his birthday brought one of his two bowls of lilies of the valley. The interest in bulbs and flowers increased from that time until during the last five weeks of school a growing wild flower garden with twenty-five different spring flowers gave joy to the whole school as well as to the group itself.

One day one of the children invited the class to her home on Riverside Drive to see the view up and down the Hudson. This opened up a vital interest in the environment surrounding their homes. They found that eleven of the group lived within three blocks of the Hudson River and five within four or five blocks of the East River. Other trips were taken and floor maps made with the blocks. The trips also deepened the interest in boats which had been strong since the first of the year and which finally culminated in a play about, "The boats we saw on the Hudson River." The three big interests continued throughout the year, all closely related to the children's own experiences but carrying them into ever widening fields and into new interests.

Limitations of space make it impossible to tell about the work with the speech difficulties or social development or to tell how the art and music helped in the program. But because of the particularly interesting results in one phase of the health program it might be of value to show how this program was worked out satisfactorily.

From the conferences with parents lack of appetite or like or dislike of some particular kind of food stood out as a common problem. There was a real need for developing a nutrition program. It was agreed that it should not be a program concerned with the skill in preparing food but that it should aim for right attitudes toward wholesome food selected with aid of the school physician and the home economics teacher. There was to be no particular mention made to the children that the food had special food values, but there was to be as much pleasure as possible connected with the preparation and serving of the food. It should be so simple that it would take not longer than twenty or thirty minutes to prepare and would be ready to serve at the regular mid-morning lunch time.

The results which came from the preparation and sharing of the food and the influence that the group exerted on the few who did not like some particular kind of food were most satisfactory. N. became so much interested in whole wheat cereals that, according to the mother's statement, she enlisted the enthusiasm of other members of the family. J. who always had difficulty at home at meal time began at first to say, "I don't like that," but he ended by coming back for more. D. who could hardly be induced to eat baked apples and prunes at home later begged her mother to have them and to find out how they were cooked at school. R. who "hated milk" and anything cooked with milk began with glee to tell how he made rice pudding and junket at home and he loved to shut his eyes and recite the recipe. B. was in the habit of keeping everybody waiting at home while he played with his cereals. Soon he began to hurry in order that he might have a second helping.

WILD FLOWERS TAMED TO GROW INDOORS

"AT HOME" IN THE HOUSE THEY HAVE BUILT

At the close of the year each parent was sent a personal letter telling of the development of his child and calling his attention also to the child's special needs. With this was sent a brief description of the program as it had been carried out. To each child was sent a letter containing suggestions for summer activities and recipes which they had used at school. Before the close of the year voluntary responses had come from almost every family showing that desirable changes in individual children which could be traced directly to this program had been observed at home.

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The Committee on Advertising for CHILDHOOD EDUCATION invites you to take a personal interest in the advertising pages of the magazine.

COMMITTEE ON ADVERTISING

The Elastic Program Permeates the Primary

E. M. SIPPLE

The Park School, Baltimore, Maryland

THE task of giving an outline of a definite, made-in-advance course of study is an easy one. The problem of presenting an adequate picture of an elastic program of activities is full of difficulties. The answer to the question, "How did this happen to be going on at this time?" may at times be the answer to the question, "Is this typical of the new, or progressive school?" Two pieces of handwork may be side by side, and for display purposes they may look much alike, yet one may be full of life and creative expression of children while the other may be work of a "good" teacher's initiative. Any statement, therefore, of classroom procedure will almost surely have read into it the viewpoint of the reader. That intangible, yet very real, thing which we may call the driving purpose, or the spirit of the work in which the children are engaged, is not easily written. I can, therefore, promise that the outline given in this discussion will give an incomplete representation of the school from which the illustrations have been taken. Those who find suggestions will possess all the article has to offer.

The Park School program does not follow either the extreme definite, made-in-advance course, or the ultra-project course, which calls for the program to grow under the direction of a skilful teacher. It has what I choose to call guidance centers for the various grades. Even these centers, however, change their complexion from year to year, and the ramifications from them are rather widely diversified. For example, what was happening in the second grade in November 1927 will, in all probability, not occur in November 1928, or a succeeding November. The radiations from the guidance centers as set down in this discussion will be for most part typical of the school year 1927–1928.

KINDERGARTEN

The attitude of the school toward the kindergarten children may be summarized in this fashion: Here are children who have been *sent* to us. Will they in the future want to *come* to us? They have attitudes and behavior patterns based upon inheritance and experience; in these they differ the one from the other. They are to live in a give-and-take world that will reward initiative, creative expression, and individuality and will demand consideration for the rights of others. How can we so handle the school environment as to give daily practice in individual and cooperative living? How can we make this school life a real life, a happy child life, a life of wholesome growth through rich experiences? How can we so use the school

situation and the materials of instruction as to bring out the best possibilities in every individual?

With this human objective in mind, and with no worry as to the preparation of children for any school grade, the kindergarten program is extremely elastic. However, activities connected with community living, or socialized life, may be considered the guidance centers for this year. These come from the lives and the interests of the children. The length of this paper will permit of only sketchy illustrations of the kindergarten children in action. These will not include the exploratory first few days of school life.

Type One: The home and family life are naturally sources of common experiences and mutual interests. This is too familiar to every progressive kindergarten teacher to demand much consideration as to the original interests. Last year a house with awnings, screen doors and windows, and a complete lawn with playground grew. The cooperative work that went into this, and the individual differences provided for through the many units demanded for a completely furnished and occupied home will appear at the mere mention of the project. When does this unit develop? At what time of the year would this be seen in the kindergarten? No one can answer these questions. It might not constitute an activity at all next year. It probably will because of its general appeal. But a circus, a pet in the home or the school "menagerie," or any one of many interests might call for consideration before the home. With one group the home grew into a rather imposing city with parks, streets, business houses, apartment houses, etc. This demanded visits to the zoo, and to the parks near the school.

Type Two: A boy brought in an interesting boat account. Here was material for talk around the circle with the teacher. A trip to the harbor was a necessity for full satisfaction. Boats of various sorts and sizes, from one built from large blocks and occupying large floor space to small ones in clay and on paper, gave evidence of tastes and constructive ability.

Type Three: It is Christmas time. What can I make for mother, or father, or brother, or sister? To any kindergarten teacher who is not thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the new education a word of warning may be dropped here. Even if the article is going home, it should be the child's idea and the child's work, with only those suggestions and those aids that the teacher would give at other times.

Interest in animals and in striking incidents of life such as air plane flights, trips to new lands, etc., keep any group with initiative, imagination, and a wise teacher very busy in this one phase of kindergarten life. In the favorable environment of The Park School much of value is done out of doors. This is merely taking advantage of a local situation and its elaboration would add little to the general idea of wide-awake life as the core of the kindergarten.

FIRST GRADE

Frequently the interest in some project in the kindergarten carries over into the first grade and constitutes a core activity for the early weeks of school. With one group the city developed in the kindergarten seemed to have gained interest during vacation. The

desire to build a real city was general. It was more a complete city than the one constructed in kindergarten and was apparently quite satisfying. It so happened that year that the new kindergarten group, for some reason which I do not recall, had started a city. When the children of the two groups learned that both were building cities a child suggested that they should connect the two cities by railroad. This suggestion was received with enthusiasm, and the road was duly built (of paper) and laid.

The first grade interests are, of course, broader than are those of the kindergarten, but family life and community life may properly be called the guidance centers. This goes beyond the immediate home life of the children and most frequently includes Eskimo life and Indian life, largely because of the stories read in this grade and because of the constructive and dramatic appeals made by these peoples to children six years old.

Armistice Day, Thanksgiving Day, Washington's Birthday, and other special days may start an extensive project. However, one of these days may come in the midst of an absorbing activity. At this time an assembly program, special reports, and particular attention to the event may be all that the occasion will warrant.

I shall report but one community life project from last year. It started with a store. In buying and selling, the children found that they needed a bank. After much discussion and planning they built the banking house with windows, vaults and all. The banking business and the store business made a busy community, with transactions that were still going on when time to rest for the vacation came.

GRADE TWO

The experiences of the children have broadened by the second grade year, and their reading ability has opened up rich avenues for new experiences. The guiding center of activities may here be found in primitive life. However, the avenues of departure are as numerous as conditions of enrichment demand. The primitive life center has been found satisfactory because it is full of human interest, because it lends itself to colorful living, and because it has literature available for children's use. Children now want to do some reading and reporting for themselves. It is important that they have material at hand. The primitive living is associated with life today quite naturally. The study of it may start from today as it did last year.

Last fall some children found vegetables still in the school garden—vegetables that they themselves had planted in the spring before the close of school the preceding year. This led to a discussion of food for people. With that particular group the getting of food for human life happened to lead on. The children entered into the study, in an elementary way, to be sure, of man's dependence upon nature for food. The teacher took advantage of the material at hand, both in the form of literature and in the form of methods today. One of the children brought some furs to school when man's dependence upon animals appeared important. This resulted in a rather unusually complete study of furs and fur-bearing animals.

The Cave People and the Tree Dwellers are the peoples around whom much of the reading and the living group. The importance of weather conditions and the forces of nature upon these poorly protected peoples is evident to

children. Weather records and the study of the stars seem to have appealed strongly to our children.

Last year, due to the visit of one child's mother to Germany after the opening of school, the German people sent the Cave People and the Tree Dwellers to their rude homes for a time. The interest then went to Japan and to those interesting people. This gave the teacher the problem of directing the gathering of material not at the time ready for use in this grade. It would probably have been an easier task to tell the children that they would learn about the German and the Japanese people later, and that they must confine their study to the people suggested in the course of study. The teacher felt free to take the wiser course, and she took it, with excellent and pleasing results. Probably Germany and Japan will not come into prominence next year in the second grade. The radiation from the guidance center may be to other places of human interest. In any event, the teacher will not have to wait for some unusual incident in order that the class may be purposefully engaged in their school life. She will be prepared as if the new class were to have no leading ability, as if they were to be lacking in initiative. However, she will not expect such a deadening situation. She will, therefore, be ready to feed the enthusiasm of the living interests that will in all probability appear.

An illustration of an instructive study, based upon an incident that at another time and under other conditions would have had no significance, is furnished by another second grade group. Bread as a food is usually studied in this grade. In the grade under consideration, a girl brought a baker's cap to class at the right time for it to be meaningful. The fact that it was a cap rather than a smock, or a loaf of bread, has no significance. It was something related to a subject of immediate interest. That is what gave it the power. At any rate, this cap made the members of this particular second grade into bakers, whose zeal I should like to have my employees match if I were in the bakery business. I shall quote from the report of Miss Masters, supervisor of the Primary Department: "This object of interest led the group to take a trip to a large local bakery, after which they were interested to make bread for themselves in the home economics kitchen at school. Having learned the hygienic value of cap and smock, each made cap and smock for herself before working in the kitchen. They sold their miniature loaves of bread to the other members of the primary department in a play store. (The money used was not real.) They also made a movie of their trip to the bakery, presenting the story through drawings and explanations to a primary assembly." Another quotation will indicate how the class of last year moved in a somewhat different direction from the class of the previous year. (The class cited above was of 1926–1927.) To quote: "This year's class ended with a simple play showing their impressions gained in visiting a large dairy. This included the receiving, handling, and distributing of milk to the householders' very doors."

The baker's cap was found to be a good lead in 1926–1927. Why not use it regularly from year to year? The teacher could present the cap at the right moment, direct the discussion into the right avenues, and have a genuinely educational program go forward. This

procedure might not be all bad. If a teacher and a class are at a standstill, the teacher is fully justified in grabbing a cap or anything else that will make the classroom a living institution. There seems to be no magic about a baker's cap in this particular school. It has started a worthwhile activity only once. It did not repeat the second year. We are ready, however, to place it on our honor roll for what it did once.

The social organization of the second grade, based upon primitive clan life, has been very satisfactory. The group is organized into a clan, with clan rules and regulations built up by themselves on the basis of the best interests of the clan. The judgments of the clan are often very helpful and encouraging to individuals. This organization must be under the watchful eye of the teacher if it is to be constructive.

GRADE THREE

The space alloted to this paper will not justify an outline for the third grade. The guiding center in this grade is early life as typified by the Sea People. People who have traveled naturally include the Pilgrims, about whom this grade makes a comparatively intensive study. The study also includes children of many lands. Exchange of products and trade routes demand study of maps and globes. Children in this grade have much greater mastery of the tool subjects than have children of the earlier grades. They also have methods of approach to a problem and study habits that make it possible for them to carry forward their activities more completely than they could in the second grade. The general attitude of the school, and the freedom of approach by the teacher, however, remain unchanged.

Do the usual school subjects, reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, and language receive recognition in this program? A carpenter can not work without mastery of the tools of his trade. Neither can children in school carry on work effectively without control of those instruments which are essential to satisfaction in their school endeavors. Reading and language are in great demand. Writing (manuscript), spelling, and use of numbers are of prime importance in recording events, issuing the "Primary News," playing games, measuring, comparing, clarifying allusions found in reading, and running the school store and the school bank. Are these subjects learned incidentally by the children? In some cases neither incidentally nor easily, but we hope, in most cases, purposefully. With the many valuable methods of instruction placed at her command through the scientific studies of capable scholars, the classroom teacher of today can not justify poor teaching of subjects.

SUMMARY

The program of the primary grades at The Park School radiates from guidance centers. These centers and the records of the activities of previous years give the teacher a guide for the direction of her efforts and a check for evaluating the experiences which her children are having. This prevents the "at sea" feeling, especially of a new teacher, when a program has not yet taken on full sail.

The program is very elastic. The teachers and the supervisor are on the alert to take advantage of every genuinely sound educational lead. They do not, however, sit about waiting for something to happen.

It takes a broad and inclusive view of the subject matter as racial experiences to be utilized for the enrichment of the experiences of the children. It sets out to use the school environment and the school subjects of instruction as means of presenting situations that will give children practice in right thinking, right emotional responses, and right acting in normal child life conditions. It rests on the belief that no particular set of facts and no specific situations have yet been found that possess peculiar value over all other facts and situations; but that the wholesome situation which is most meaningful at the time is also the most educational, and that those facts which contribute most to the growing life are the most valuable.

The days before Hallowe'en—the season for silhouettes! Shadow pictures, easily played in the average schoolroom aid children's perception and provide pleasure as well as preparation for cutting of simple forms.

Administrative Aspects in Meeting Differences

LAURA FRAZEE

Assistant Superintendent of Public Schools, Baltimore, Maryland

THE traditional manner of applying the school curriculum was not unlike that employed with the famous bed of Procrustes: some of the candidates for its hospitality chanced by the law of random selection to fit it, but the long and the short were stretched or abbreviated to the required standard.

Two movements in modern education have in large measure made it possible to reverse this process in the schools and to determine the application of courses of study by the mental abilities and aptitudes of the children themselves. One of these influences has been the development of the scientific testing of intelligence and achievement; the other, the modern study of the psychology of childhood. The first of these has made it possible to determine, at least approximately, the native endowment of the individual child and the relation which his accomplishment bears to his ability; the second, with its revelation of the part played in the child's education by his own experiences, is revolutionizing the spirit, the materials, and the method of primary education.

During the past few years there has been an increasing disposition on the part of those concerned with the education of the younger children in the Baltimore schools to take practical account of the wide differences in learning ability which exist among those of normal mentality. The part in this movement taken by the Bureau of Research of the Public Schools is stated by the Director of the Bureau, Dr. John L. Stenquist, in another article in this issue. This article will confine itself to the administrative and general educational phases.

The work was begun five years ago on a very small scale with the organization of a committee consisting of twelve elementary school principals, the primary supervisory staff, the Director and other representatives of the Bureau and the Assistant Superintendent of the department to study problems of homogeneous grouping. The pupils of the primary grades in each of the schools represented were given ability tests in the beginning and standard achievement tests semi-annually. They were classified in ability groups and reclassified from time to time on the basis of later tests and subsequent accomplishment. Some small beginnings were made in the modification of teaching materials and methods to adapt these more definitely to the needs of rapid, average, and slow-moving pupils. The literature of the new movement was read and discussed by the committee members and applied as far as practi-

cable to the solution of problems in the schools which they represented.

After three years devoted to this preliminary try-out, the Bureau of Research having meantime completed the testing of all of the elementary schools, ability classification was made city wide and its problems were studied with the entire force of elementary schools. Each school is classified on an X, Y, Z basis. In the primary grades of the largest schools each of the general levels of ability is represented by one or more entire classes; in smaller schools one class includes all children and therefore the entire range of ability in the grade. In all cases, however, the class is broken up into smaller, more homo-

LIGHT HOUSEKEEPING IN SCHOOL—DEVELOPING INDIVIDUAL RESPONSIBILITY

principals in connection with the regular monthly Divisional Conferences. So slowly and naturally did the movement advance that it won its way without opposition either from within the schools or from the community.

On its administrative side, homogeneous classification has now become an established policy in the Baltimore geneous groups, and the teacher is helped to find the mental range of each group and to bring to it the opportunity for those experiences and that kind and degree of stimulus which its particular status suggests.

In the case of the younger children especially, there is danger of premature classification made on insufficient data

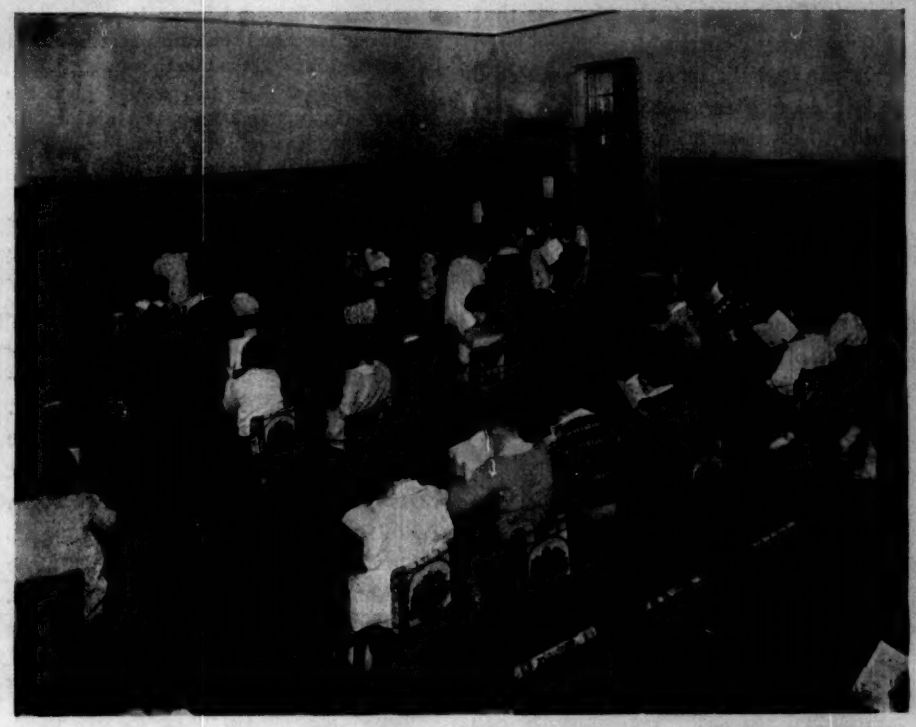
and therefore misrepresentative of actual ability. To avoid such erroneous appraisals of individuals, the practice of shifting doubtful cases from one group or class to another is followed in order to get the judgment of different teachers and the effects of different environments. Account is taken of health, personality traits, and home conditions, including the use of a foreign language, before these exceptional cases are finally classified. Fresh data discovered at any time is welcome and is taken into the total account. Where possible, slowly moving classes are given smaller enrolments and where necessary accelerated classes are given larger enrolments than the standard for classes progressing at the average rate.

In the advancement of classes from term to term, a new problem has developed out of one phase of the otherwise excellent practice of setting classes of X, Y, and Z ability free to progress each at its own rate. This problem lies in the fact that while the units of work to be accomplished semi-annually by the sixty per cent of children of average ability have been approximately established by years of standardization, the rates at which the same units are mastered by the twenty per cent of dull and the twenty per cent of bright children in each grade are left to the variable judg-

"Everyone to His Own Taste"—Experiences in Working with Materials

ment of individual teachers and principals. At any time within the term at which an X or a Z class is thought to have completed the work of the term, it is promoted to the next grade. By this practice some classes are likely to waste time, others to be insufficiently prepared.

mary grades, proposes to establish norms of term accomplishment for classes above average and classes below average by the same process of experiment and test which has gradually determined the amount which classes of average ability can accomplish. The progress of these groups should, it would seem, be meas-



"THREE IN ONE"—A THREE GROUP READING PERIOD WITH MATERIAL ADAPTED TO NEEDS AND ABILITIES OF CHILDREN

Recognition of the disadvantages of this irregularity has suggested what seems to be a practicable remedy for it and at the same time a rationalizing of the whole matter of the advancement of bright and dull groups. This plan which is now being considered in Baltimore for possible adoption in the pri-

ured by their own standards rather than by standards set up by the average group. The term-unit in the course of study for the Y group covers the amount of work which this group can complete in a term. Similarly, the term-unit for the X group could be made to cover the amount of work which the X group can

complete in a term and that for the Z group the amount which it can accomplish in the same period.

Experience has shown roughly that superior classes in the primary grades, moving at their normal rate, finish the primary school in five terms, or two and one-half years, and that classes below the average require eight terms or four years. The proposal, therefore, is that the primary curriculum, considered merely in its bulk, or amount, be allowed to fall ino five term-units for X classes and into eight term-units for Z classes, each unit to be determined experimentally by the amount actually accomplished by these classes within term limits.

If the primary course of study divided into term-units suited to the different abilities of X, Y, and Z classes were blocked off in diagram form one could see clearly that the block of subject-matter which comprises the fourth term's work for a Y class has been almost half mastered in the second term by the X class, while the Z class in the same grade will require practically all of its fourth term to complete the same unit. Similarly, the work done in the sixth term by the Y is mastered in less time by the X although in its fifth term; while the Z will need a quarter of its seventh and all of its eighth term to cover the same ground.

While the proportionate distribution of time suggested is approximate only, such a plan would have the following advantages:

Every class would have a definite promotion at the end of each term except for extraordinary reasons. Failure of promotion would occur with individuals for individual reasons.

Every class would enter upon a fresh, new unit of work at the beginning of each term.

All promotions would fall together, at the end of each term, thus fitting into the two-semester plan of reorganizing classes, making reports, etc.

Term requirements could be made as definite for X and for Z classes as they are now for Y classes.

Progress for X classes could be adjusted to a steady rate from first to last, instead of varying between higher and lower degrees of acceleration.

There could be insured to both X and Z groups a wise balance between facts and skills on the one hand and the enrichment furnished by experience and content on the other.

Teachers of these groups could be given the definite helps and guidance that are already accorded teachers of Y groups through the organization of the curriculum.

The point has been made that the course of study can be adjusted to the upper and the lower levels of ability by scientific experimentation. Such experimentation has been begun in Baltimore in the current school year with the expectation of continuing it indefinitely. The organization through which the studies are made consists for the present of twenty-seven "centers" of one room each, scattered over the city in schools old and new, under conditions favorable and unfavorable, each class taught by a progressive teacher and each under the guidance of the school principal and a primary supervisor. The group of centers includes three IB classes of X ability, three of Y ability and three of Z ability. Similar provision is made for the three levels in 2B and 3B. As these B sections will become A sections in the second semester, the entire year's unit in the materials and methods selected for experiment may be covered for each grade on each level within the year. The Bureau of Research will cooperate by handling the testing and statistical problems involved and in formulating the findings. It is expected

that out of these concrete studies will be evolved a differentiation of the course of study for grades one, two, and three which will better meet the different needs of bright, average, and dull children. One of the most urgent problems in the placement of material at this time is that of when, on each level, the teaching of reading should be begun; one of the most urgent in the field of method is that of how in each case it can best be approached and developed.

In conclusion one thing must be made clear. The movement in Baltimore toward an X, Y, Z course of study for the primary grades is not only for the sake of facilitating the mastery, on all levels, of the facts and skills of the subjects of study. Such facility is of great value and will continue to be sought earnestly, but along with it are the vital concerns of social and personal growth. The curriculum must contain, besides mathematics and word studies, a child's wholesome experiences with the children about him, his inquiry into nature and into the ways of his elders, his response to the flashes of beauty which come to him in color and sound and motion. It must stimulate desires in connection with things really to be desired and repulsions toward things which harm. It must build into habit those forms of response and behavior which make for the higher good. It must be lived as well as learned.

This "enrichment" of the curriculum in the experiment described is given to dull as well as bright children. If there were no justification for this other than the increased keeness which it lends to the mastery of facts and skills, it would be well worth while. Its higher justification is that it brings some color and meaning into life for those whose work is likely to be menial and whose outlook is drab. On the other side of the picture, there is need to see to it that the child of superior intelligence learns to live by his labor and not by his wits; that he becomes responsible for the investment of his richer gifts and for the return of a correspondingly high rate of usury to his small world.

In its last analysis, *ability classification rests upon the bed-rock of human relationships.* These tend strongly to lie with and not across fundamental abilities. Average is drawn to average, bright to bright, dull to dull. In its natural environment each may be unselfconscious, more at harmony with itself, and therefore more normally conditioned for growth. Discouragement and conceit have little soil in which to grow. Understanding and tolerance develop. Each individual measures himself against his own group and so gets a truer estimate of himself. On each level and sub-level leadership is bred. This fundamental principle of the natural segregation of social groups on the basis of mental calibre would seem the only one which could insure to high and low the fullest opportunity for personal development and social contribution. It is a phase of that "shared common interest" within the group which Dr. Dewey gives as one of the essentials of democracy. As such it must, however, be linked in practice with the other, namely, "a free interaction between groups." There are many ways in which this interaction can be arranged. These would require another article for their discussion. The needs are that teachers, principals, and supervisors be on the alert to make use of them, that the occasions be handled with directness and sincerity and that they be made to foster favorable attitudes.

The Research Bureau Meets Individual Differences

JOHN L. STENQUIST

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AS IS well known, the problem of testing abilities and achievements of primary children is more difficult than is the case with older pupils. *Homo sapiens* at the beginning of school life tends to be an erratic and somewhat mysterious quantity. Mentally each day he exhibits new facets that seem to have been hidden yesterday. Some angle of his nature, though fairly well developed, may by some emotional quirk be kept securely hidden; so that we, in our examinations, conclude it is not there. In this situation, instinctively we have a tendency to fall back on intuitions and general "motherly judgment." Primary teachers particularly are wary of any attempt to measure this bundle of impulses, which we call the primary child. They are quite sure that *they* can tell whether or not little Mary is bright or dull, and how she ranks in the achievements of the early primary grades. The difficulty with this is that never yet have we been able to find two teachers who would arrive at the same conclusions, nor indeed can we be sure that the same teacher is consistent with herself in judging the abilities of succeeding classes as one after the other passes through her hands. Moreover, she is unable (which is not strange) to disentangle the total personality of these young children as they come before her. Try as she may, she will rate the intelligence of John higher than the intelligence of James if the former is orderly, well behaved, neat and kind, regardless of what the actual truth may be regarding intelligence. Similarly, she will instinctively consider James' achievement in arithmetic and reading lower than John's if James is a ruffian,—is surly, uncouth, and in general a trouble maker.

All of this is well known to all persons who have tried it and checked up results in a scientific way. We find ourselves, then, in this situation: Teachers' judgment of the intelligence or the achievement of children, particularly in the primary grades, is often far in error. Yet for want of anything better, we cling to it. Much of it is highly valuable. Attempts to measure accurately what a child actually knows in these early years are still crude,—some of them in the primeval stages. But schools must go on, as must also the attempt to improve education. We cannot, therefore, surrender merely because the problem is difficult. All in all, hope lies in intelligent research—experiments carefully planned, faithfully carried out, and rightly interpreted. Too little of such has thus far been reported. There are plenty of persons who say they are experimenting, but very few who have

sufficiently controlled conditions to be able to conclude anything with security. However, here and there qualified students are slowly working out laws of primary development which operate under certain defined conditions.

One of the methods for providing for individual differences of children is that of classifying them into X, Y, Z groups based on their scores in standard intelligence tests. In Baltimore, the Pintner-Cunningham Primary Mental Test and the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test have been employed for several semesters. So far as we are able to conclude, they are of considerable assistance in determining the mental age of a child, although more thorough tests would be desirable. They have the virtue of being practicable under our school conditions. They require some 30 minutes and can be administered by selected teachers who act as Local Primary Examiners. We find that it is possible for these examiners to examine simultaneously groups of from six to twelve pupils with fairly satisfactory results. However, no person is permitted in Baltimore to give these examinations without first having been specially instructed by a trained mental examiner from the Bureau of Research. These instructions consist first, in observing the test properly given; followed by a discussion and review of the exact procedure; and secondly, in an actual trial of giving the test under trained observation; followed by a critical review. In some cases this is repeated. With this training, the Local Examiner proceeds to examine all entering 1B children who report to the school, and submits the ratings to the officer in charge of primary testing at the Bureau of Research, where they are reviewed and returned to the principal. The Local Primary Examiners are thus under constant supervision.

On the basis of these tests together with whatever accessory information is available, children are classified into mature, average, and immature groups and designated as X, Y, or Z.

VALUE OF X, Y, AND Z RATINGS

Our system of rating every pupil who begins school in the first grade is thus now based on objective test results which are continuously tempered and fortified by the judgment of the teacher, principal, and supervisor. To say that a child has the ability to make 27 points in a standardized test is now generally recognized to be more significant than the method of basing estimates of mental ability on chronological age, appearance, etc. Teacher's testimony as to actual performance of every child is, however, always respected and all pupils concerning whom there is doubt are retested and reclassified if the facts seem to warrant it. Teachers apparently are unanimous in their testimony, that, with the aid of test results, they are enabled to understand each child better and far more quickly, and, therefore, to be more efficient teachers, than was possible before the test results were available. There are also by-products; standard tests, for example, tend to emphasize the fact that every child is an individual, often, very different from those with whom he is supposed to be comparable. No fact is more persistent than that of the wide range of ability shown by classes in any subject when objective measures are obtained. The practice of analyzing pupils' individual difficulties is stimulated by the use of objective tests. From the point of

view of the pupil, the accurate measurement of his ability is the first step toward avoiding the deadly doing over of things that he has already mastered, and conversely, is the first step in disclosing the need for help to avoid the odium of failure. As has been stated, the outstanding result of all these tests is the wide variation of children of the same age. They differ at least as much in mental age as they do in height and weight, scores ranging from 2 to 46 in the Detroit First Grade Intelligence Test. In a certain sense this is the most significant of all the findings, when we consider that heretofore these six-year-old children have persistently been considered as equal. The policy providing for individual differences, therefore, has its inception and basis in this finding.

ACHIEVEMENT IN KINDERGARTEN

The time-honored method of indicating what a child has accomplished in kindergarten merely as a single grade such as Good, Fair, or Poor is obviously inadequate, first of all because it does not analyze in any way the child's accomplishments nor does one teacher's Good correspond with another teacher's Good. In the attempt to improve the recording of achievement in kindergarten, the Kindergarten Record Card was devised by the Primary Department in cooperation with the Bureau of Research (see figs. 1 and 2). This card represents an attempt to specify fairly definitely just what it is that the child has achieved in kindergarten, such as his ability to retell stories, to sing songs, and so forth. A rough scale is provided ranging from no

KG. RECORD*
BALTIMORE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

REPORT OF KINDERGARTEN TEACHER

Pupils Name_____ School No._____

Promoted to 1st Grade_____(Month)_____19____ Kg. Teacher's Name_____

Health:— Good Fair Poor (underline one)

Physical Defects:—

Language - Oral

Stories	None ☐		None ☐
Able to retell stories alone check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐	Able to retell stories in group check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐
Songs	None ☐		None ☐
Able to sing songs alone check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐	Able to sing songs in group check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐
Rhymes	None ☐		None ☐
Able to repeat rhymes alone check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐	Able to repeat rhymes in group check one	1 - 5 ☐ 5-10 ☐ More ☐

*This card is to be filled out by Kg. Teacher for every pupil promoted from Kg. to 1st Grade and forwarded to the pupils 1st grade teacher then the principal. When the pupil is promoted to the 2nd grade, mail this card to Supv. of Kindergartens.

FIG. 1. FRONT OF KINDERGARTEN RECORD CARD

ability at all to a certain maximum number such as "more than 10." While this rating is, of course, merely the teacher's judgment, it is much more useful than a single mark. It gives a definite statement concerning several items. No standardized tests of achievement have thus far been developed for children in kindergarten.

ACHIEVEMENT IN THE FIRST GRADE

With the X, Y, Z classification accomplished, our next problem for measurement is that of achievement in the work of the first grade. Here we encounter even greater difficulties than in X, Y, Z ratings. No satisfactory achievment test for measuring first grade ability has yet been developed so far as we are aware. For want of an objective test, a First Grade Achievement Card (see figs. 3 and 4) has been devised. This card contains a comparatively detailed record of the first grade teacher's opinion of each pupil's achievement in reading, achievement in number, growth of personal characteristics, state of health, growth in social characteristics, and outstanding interests and abilities. The card is based on the assumption that since first grade work is comprised so largely of activities other than the actual techniques of the three R's alone, such, for example, as learning to cooperate with other persons, learning oral expression, bodily coordination, how to live in school, etc.,—therefore, the record of achievement in the first grade should be an accounting of what has been accomplished in all these activities rather than a test of word knowledge exclusively. The weakness of it is, of course, that it is merely the personal opinion of the teacher, hence the ratings are not objective. However, it is detailed and systematic, and until objective tests are available in first grade work, it is believed that a careful rating

Conversational Ability
check one

None ☐
Little ☐
Average ☐
Great ☐
Unusual ☐

Any outstanding special interests?

Any outstanding special abilities?

Length of time in Kindergarten

Term (check below how many) or Weeks (if less than term)

1.
2.
3.

Remarks:

Principal's Signature _____

FIG. 2. BACK OF KINDERGARTEN RECORD CARD

such as this by the first grade teacher will be of demonstrable value. It at least gives a specific and unambiguous record of the first grade teacher's judgment of each pupil.

In addition the Bureau has under way experiments looking toward new tests for first grade work, one of these a test of number concepts devised by Isabel Lazarus of this Bureau will be tried out during the ensuing term.

FIRST GRADE
REPORT*

FIRST GRADE ACHIEVEMENT

— Baltimore Public Schools —

School.....

No. Terms in Kg.....

Pupils Name_____
Last First

No. Terms in 1st Gde...

Promoted to 2nd Gde..... 1st Gde. Tchrs. Name_____

Directions: Make a check-mark (✓) at what you estimate to be the right point on each scale line.

—HEALTH—

poor average good

Any Physical Defects?
(specify)

—SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS—

	none	little	average	much	unusual
Ability as leader					
As a follower					
As a mixer					

Any Outstanding Interests?
(specify)

—PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS—

Independence
Perseverance
Initiative
Cooperation
Cheerfulness
Accuracy

Any Outstanding Abilities?
(specify)

* To be filled in by First Grade teacher when promoting to Second Grade

FIG. 3. FRONT OF FIRST GRADE ACHIEVEMENT CARD

ACHIEVEMENT IN THE SECOND GRADE

The same difficulties that were found in the first grade are found up to the middle of the second grade. At this point, however, we find it possible to obtain a fairly satisfactory standard test score in the rudiments of reading. The Detroit Word Recognition Test is used. This is repeated at the end of the 2A. This test gives us an objective rating of the child's progress in recognizing words, the first step in reading. Results for several consecutive terms are now available in our files. The variability of pupils in this grade and in this subject is, as in all other grades, very wide. In this grade it is also possible to obtain a standard test score in the fundamental number combinations. The Pressey Second Grade Attainment Scale has been used several times with considerable success.

ACHIEVEMENT IN THE THIRD GRADE

In the third grade, it becomes possible to use the Stanford Achievement Test which is the most reliable of the available primary tests. This gives a fairly

comprehensive measure of the child's mastery of words, sentences, and paragraphs, together with an equally good measure of his mastery of arithmetic fundamentals and problems. A spelling test is also included in this battery. The identical test is repeated in a different form at the beginning of the 4B grade

day conditions, the problem of *how to get through the work involved* becomes a very basic consideration—hence the significance of all methods and devices that can in any way reduce the burden imposed upon the teacher. Moreover, every device that does mechanically what was formerly done by hand, tends to reduce

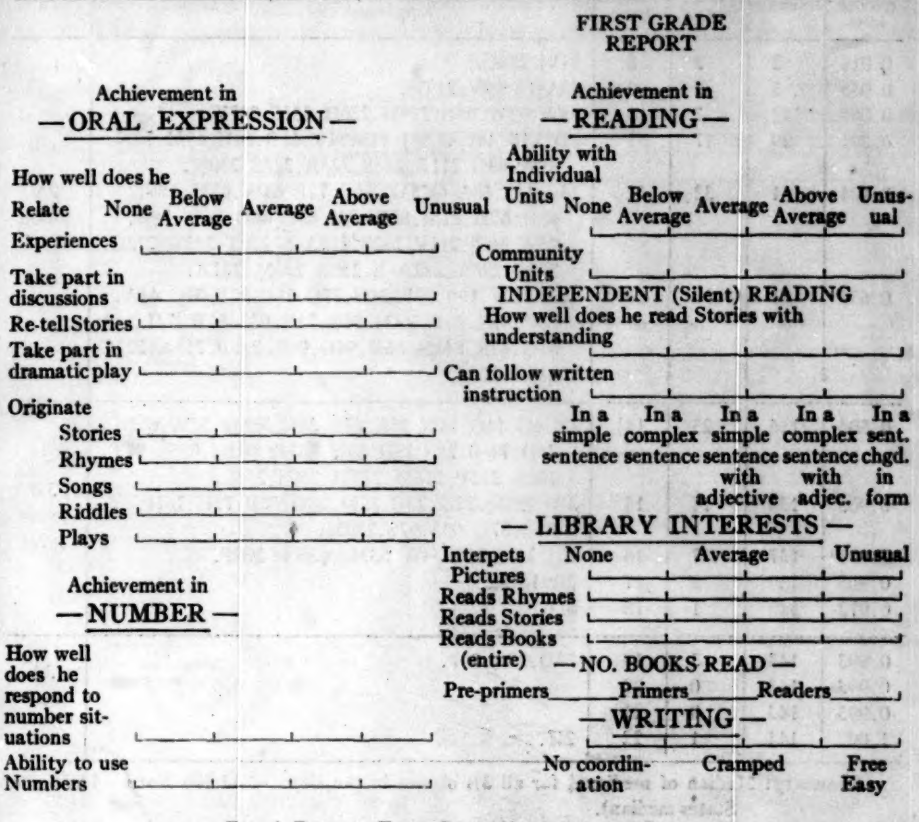


FIG. 4. BACK OF FIRST GRADE ACHIEVEMENT CARD

as the child leaves the primary and enters the intermediate grades, thus giving us a significant measurement at this critical point.

LABOR SAVING DEVICES

In carrying on comprehensive testing programs in school systems under every-

the number of errors. The problem is two-fold: How to carry on an adequate program with the help available, and yet maintain a sufficient degree of reliability. For the importance of reliability in any type of measurement must always, in the nature of the case, supersede all its other characteristics.

ARITHMETIC

(Addition)

BALTIMORE CITY—SEPTEMBER, 1927
SUMMARY DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES IN EACH SCHOOL

3 B Classes

(Pressey Second Grade Attainment Test)

PERCENTILE RANK	SUMS	FREQUENCY	MEDIAN SCORE	SCHOOL NUMBER AND TEACHER'S INITIAL (EACH ENTRY REPRESENTS ONE CLASS)	
0.014	2	2	8	51Vi.234C.	
0.035	5	3	9	48A–Gi.99V.213W.	
0.083	12	7	10	98W.99W.99B.219H.220H.235S.237W.	
0.201	29	17	11	3D.13B.44I.48A–J.51S.51V.61B.64H.69M.72N. 81W.83G.211B.225S.225R.228S.230M.	
0.424	61	32	12	23L.44S.48A–G.54E.56B.71P.61W.65M.68S. 68D.69H.81M.83W.83I.85C.86D.86W.88B. 95W.98G.211V.212S.218A–S.220T.223K.223G. 226C.226K.227A–B.235B.236M.237B.	2A grade level
0.632	91	30	13*	16K.16W.19S.20F.24H.27C.31P.33B.37C.44A. 53P.54N.55P.56Od.58Q.71C.63S.64W.74L. 81G.82R.84Ho.86K.94G.98R.218B.218K.221C 222O.228B.	
0.806	116	25	14†	4E.6G.14G.14N.25E.27B.31C.55Mc.55W.65L. 74D.74–0.76S.83H.84H.85Mc.94Ba.95Sh.97T. 208B.212V.213M.227M.230S.236L.	
0.903	130	14	15	3W.20Mc.22H.23C.25M.28D.50B.75H.76H. 84C.87D.93S.97S.230M.	3B grade level
0.951	137	7	16	10J.15H.24F.34W.53Mc.63S to 209P.	
0.965	139	2	17	2R.13Ge.	
0.972	140	1	18	87L.	
0.993	143	3	19	22D.28A.34P.	
0.993	143	0	20		3A grade level
0.993	143	0	21		
1.00	144	1	22	2H.	

Summary: Median of medians‡ for all 3B classes in the city: = 13.366 Norm—14 (United States median).
Q (typical deviation from median) = 1.2.
75 percentile = 14.66 (classes above this are unusual).
25 percentile = 12.218 (classes below this are unusual).

* Baltimore median.
† United States median.
‡ Based on inspection medians only (approximate).

FIG. 5.

To the extent that it is unsatisfactory, the resulting measurement will, of course, be unsatisfactory.

In the practical use of tests in the schools, therefore, every practical scheme for reducing time and labor so long as reliability and validity is maintained is of utmost significance. Fortunately, these items are generally positively correlated: Those tests which are most easily amount of labor and time of scoring involved frequently holds us to this limit, since public schools must ever deal with great numbers.

SELECTION OF TESTS

In the choice of tests, for example, if it can be shown that validity and reliability are equal in the case of several tests, that one easiest to give and score

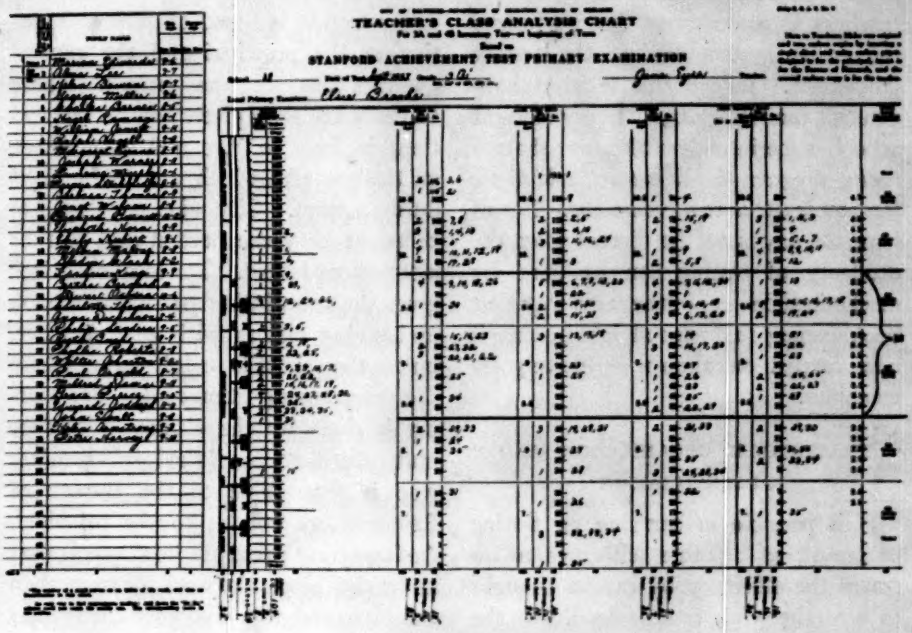


FIG. 6

given and scored can generally be given in greater quantity and hence ordinarily thus exhibit greater reliability. Undoubtedly much of the value that resides in the use of measuring devices of various kinds in education is not now capitalized because of the labor and time involved. We test a child four minutes all too often when we know we should test him forty minutes to secure an adequate reliability of results, but the is generally the one to choose. There is, to be sure, the constant danger that testers will be tempted to choose a test *merely* because it is easy to score or inexpensive. Such practice, of course, is indefensible. On the other hand, it seems very likely that tests which are easily scored and easily given can be made quite as reliable as those which are more awkwardly constructed. There is considerable difference among

the various tests on the market at present available, and there is promise that something far more practicable lending itself to machine methods will eventually be available. For the present, the intelligent director of testing work can at least very carefully scrutinize the several tests now available, and can often make a selection that will mean the difference between a testing program that is considered a success by teachers as against one that prejudices the entire system against the testing movement. Indeed this is what happens all too frequently. Every efficient school superintendent knows that *a testing program that is not well sold to the teachers is apt to be a boomerang.* Let us hope the day is not far distant when the drudgery of testing can be done by mechanical devices in the same way that bookkeeping in financial institutions is now carried on almost exclusively by machines.

PRACTICABLE ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION

It is possible in carrying on testing programs, as in other activities to increase the efficiency by careful thought to how the work is organized. In the Baltimore schools, where the testing movement has grown from one or two schools to a city wide program over a period of about five years, the plan was at first to send out representatives from the Bureau of Research to do the testing in the schools. It quickly became clear that to maintain such a program too big a force would have to be carried at a Bureau of Research. Moreover, since a testing program is of direct concern to the teachers, we cannot escape the feeling that the classroom teacher herself should have a leading part in it, provided only that the work does not become too burdensome. To meet this situation we have gradually built up an organization of local examiners in each school working under the direction of the Bureau of Research. Testing is divided into two main divisions, primary and intermediate. One teacher in each school is selected to act as Local Primary Examiner and another to act as Local Intermediate Examiner. The selection is based on recommendation of the principal and the general qualifications of the person. These teachers are then given minute instructions in how to give and score those particular tests which are to be used during a term. City wide meetings are called as they are needed and further instructions issued. The local examiner gives the tests in her particular school, exchanging classes with each teacher, unless the school is unduly large, where she delegates a portion of it. The scoring is done by the classroom teacher under the direction of the local examiner who is responsible to the Bureau of Research, as well as to the principal. An important principle, however, is that no teacher scores the work for more than one class and this is almost always her own class. This item is very important. The teacher does not feel the burden so keenly so long as it is concentrated on the children of her own class.

From the Superintendent's point of view, the plan of the programs of testing is, of course, important. In Baltimore, at present, we have adopted what we have called *a system of inventory testing at the beginning of each term.* Ordinarily, a test of reading, arithmetic, and possibly intelligence, sometimes supplemented by a test of spelling or English is given at the beginning of each term.

This is done particularly for the improvement of instruction, our theory being that a teacher can get the maximum benefit of test results if she has information for a new class as it comes to her. Theoretically, it would be desirable to also test the class at the end of a term. This has not so far been possible because of the amount of work entailed. In the case of midyear testing, however, the beginning and end results can be utilized for both purposes. Eventually we will probably conduct each year a third city wide testing at the close of school in June. Each of these programs results in a city wide survey for the subjects involved, and hence they are of marked importance for the Board of Superintendents as well as for the classroom teacher.

The point to be noted here is that by this rather well-perfected organization an enormous amount of work becomes possible. A city wide testing program for a city of almost a million population is a huge undertaking at best, but by this method, it has worked here, and it is felt that we have a more detailed, uniform and systematic body of data for all of the children in the elementary schools than we have ever had before. The relative and absolute standing[1] of every 3B class in arithmetic, for example,[2] is known to the supervisors and superintendents as soon as the inventory tests are summarized at the Bureau of Research following the beginning of each term, in the same way that the relative and absolute standing of every child in her class is known to the teacher at the beginning of each term. A summary of the performance of every class and indeed of every child is on file at the Bureau of Research in the form of a carbon copy of the Teachers Class Analysis Chart which will be described later.

Centralized control thus is an important factor in this as in similar undertakings. While the testing work is directed from a central bureau, teacher and principals everywhere are stimulated and encouraged in any minor testing which they wish to carry on. The demand for testing may originate practically at any level but always terminates at the Bureau of Research. The systematic testing, however, originates with the Board of Superintendents in cooperation with supervisors and the Bureau of Research. Great care is taken, however, not to impose tests but rather to plan for those which are wanted and generally requested by principals and teachers.

MAKING REAL USE OF TEST RESULTS

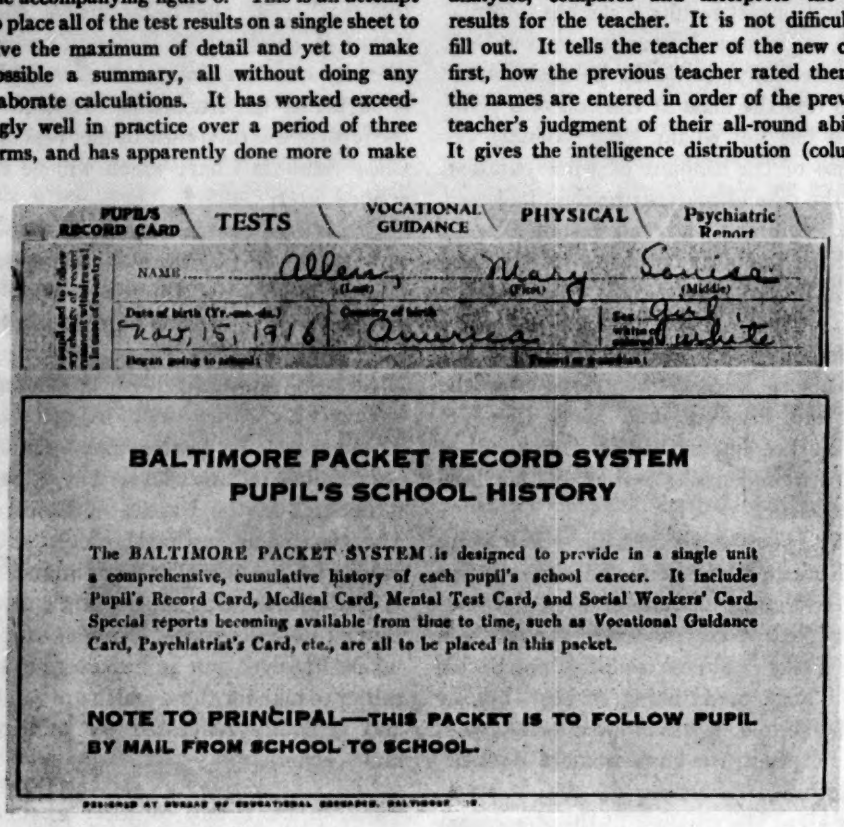
How to make adequate use of test findings has been a major problem ever since their invention. Methods tend to be sporadic, and to differ from school to school and from city to city. Scores for various tests are in different units and it is often a matter of considerable difficulty to compare results of one test with those of another and escape statistical pitfalls. Another item of paramount importance is that test results should get the hands of the teachers *promptly and in such form that they are meaningful.*

After considerable experimentation, we have devised and adopted here in Baltimore what we

[1] By relative rating is meant how the classes of the city compare with each other; by absolute standing is meant how the classes compare with national norms based on the population of the United States. Where standardized tests are used, these are immediately available; where home made tests are used, only relative ratings are possible.

[2] See Figure 5.

call *Teachers Class Analysis Charts*,[3] which are made up and printed for each testing program. The general appearance can best be gained from the accompanying figure 6. This is an attempt to place all of the test results on a single sheet to give the maximum of detail and yet to make possible a summary, all without doing any elaborate calculations. It has worked exceedingly well in practice over a period of three terms, and has apparently done more to make our testing programs effective than any other single device which we have hit upon.


PUPIL'S RECORD CARD | TESTS | VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE | PHYSICAL | Psychiatric Report

NAME Allen, (Last) Mary (First) Louise (Middle)

Date of birth (Yr.-mo.-da.) Nov. 15, 1916 | Country of birth America | Sex Girl | Color White

Began going to school: | Parent or guardian:

BALTIMORE PACKET RECORD SYSTEM
PUPIL'S SCHOOL HISTORY

The BALTIMORE PACKET SYSTEM is designed to provide in a single unit a comprehensive, cumulative history of each pupil's school career. It includes Pupil's Record Card, Medical Card, Mental Test Card, and Social Workers' Card. Special reports becoming available from time to time, such as Vocational Guidance Card, Psychiatrist's Card, etc., are all to be placed in this packet.

NOTE TO PRINCIPAL—THIS PACKET IS TO FOLLOW PUPIL BY MAIL FROM SCHOOL TO SCHOOL.

DESIGNED AT BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, BALTIMORE

FIG. 7. A SAMPLE PACKET

This chart is provided to summarize all of the test results for a class at the beginning of the term. It gives immediately a picture of the class as a whole as of every test score and every pupil. It is so planned that it automatically analyzes, compares and interprets the test results for the teacher. It is not difficult to fill out. It tells the teacher of the new class, first, how the previous teacher rated them as the names are entered in order of the previous teacher's judgment of their all-round ability. It gives the intelligence distribution (columns 9 and 10) showing immediately whether the class as a whole is bright or dull, and furthermore which pupils are the brightest and which are the dullest. In the subsequent columns it tells each pupil's standing in each subject tested, such as, arithmetic, reading, dictation, and so forth. Two broad parallel black lines are drawn to show the "at grade" zone; that is, to indicate where the pupils ought to fall. The teacher sees at a glance, therefore, which pupils are above grade and which pupils are below grade. A more detailed explanation follows:

Column 1 at the extreme left represents the rank of each pupil as judged by the previous teacher. Each of these numbers serves further throughout the chart as the identification num-

[3] Summarizing charts of one kind or another have been found necessary by many persons engaged in testing work. Superintendent Allen of Providence, Rhode Island, has a splendid plan. Director Everly of the Bureau of Research at St. Paul, Minn., has another excellent plan. No claim is made that the Baltimore Teachers Class Analysis Chart is superior to others. It has been worked out after careful study of a number of other charts and seems to be working with success.

ber for the same child in the distributions showing the results for the various tests. This provides a definite means of taking account of the teacher's judgment. Following in order, column 3 gives the chronological age, column 9 is composed of intelligence quotients. Each child's identification number is written opposite his intelligence quotient. An attempt is made to interpret these quotients in as many ways as possible in columns 5, 6, and 7. Thus in Baltimore, we call primary pupils who are 110 or above in the intelligence test, X pupils, and as is further shown in column 6 this represents the upper 20 per cent of pupils in general in Baltimore. Similarly pupils whose intelligence quotient is 76 or under are called Z pupils as is shown in column 6, meaning that they are in the lower 20 per cent of pupils in general. In column 5 an attempt is made to translate this information into adjectives such as slow, average, superior, and so forth. In succeeding columns all printed score entries for various tests are simply the normal scores all translated into grade level equivalents at the right-hand margin of the sheet. To record a child's performance, the teacher merely writes that child's identification number beside the appropriate score for each of the tests. The forms are printed with a second sheet attached so that a carbon copy can be made. Inserts are provided and in practice we are now making one original and two carbon copies, one for the teacher, one for the principal, and one for the central office. It is reprinted with changes each term to provide for whatever tests are to be used. This form is of direct use to the teachers and principals, supervisors, and the Bureau of Research.

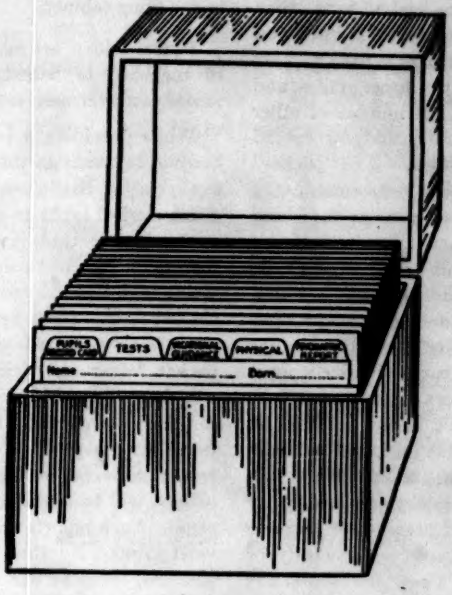


FIG. 8. FILE OF PACKETS FOR EACH TEACHER

It is, of course, necessary to have a practical method of keeping permanent records of pupils in the public schools from year to year. The Teachers Class Analysis Chart and the other data while highly significant in a testing program, are planned for use for the most part during a single term. The problem of how to maintain a continuing record for every pupil in the schools with a minimum of labor, therefore, confronts every school system.

To meet this problem, we have devised what we have called the *Baltimore Packet Record System*, (see figs. 7 and 8) which is described in the Baltimore Bulletin of Education, issues of May and June, 1924. This system provides a cumulative record of the pupil's school career, which it is believed will become of increasing value from year to year. It consists essentially of a *series* of tabbed cards, uniform in style, contained in a specially designed packet folder (see fig. 7). The nucleus of each packet is the Pupil's Record Card which gives the facts of his registration, school age, and so forth, then are added the Kindergarten Record Card and the First Grade Achievement Card, a Test Record Card as he enters the upper grades, and a Physical Medical Card. A number of other cards to be added gradually and for special cases are a part of the system. The "packet" can be handled, filed, mailed, transferred, etc., practically as easily as can a single card, and yet has the advantage that it can be *expanded as occasion demands and still remains as a compact unit*, which is, of course, impossible with a single card. This seems more practicable than attempts to place pre-determined data on one large card or sheet, or on cards of miscellaneous sizes, filed in various places. The packet is so designed that the pupil's name (already on *each card*) is always visible on the front card. No writing appears on the packet folder. This feature eliminates needless copying, and if the packet folder after several years of use becomes soiled or damaged, the cards can instantly be withdrawn and placed in a new one *without any writing*. Each card is of a different color and is tabbed which makes it a visible system and insures instant finding. The stiff, upright back of the packet folder which is higher than the front, makes it possible to handle each packet in the file cabinet in the same manner as a single card. In fact, it is easier to find, to insert, or to withdraw any given packet from the file than to find, insert or withdraw a single card from an ordinary card file. This is due to the fact that the body of each packet folder containing the cards has a thickness (equal to that of the cards within it) which automatically separates the backs of the folders as they stand in the filing cabinet.

Packet folders are made of a durable quality of tagboard to withstand hard usage. The record cards themselves are thus protected.

While providing a far more comprehensive body of information than has in the past been available for Baltimore pupils, this system reduces clerical labor to a minimum because no re-copying of records is necessary. The original reports of, e.g., test results, vocational counsel, social investigation, psychiatric examinations, etc., are all entered by the various examiners directly on standard cards designed to fit the packet folder and delivered to the principal who immediately has each such report placed in the proper packet. It is not proposed that a psychiatric report, a vocational counsellor's report, a social worker's report (and various others) will be obtained immediately for every pupil. Such reports are added gradually as the need arises. By this system records accumulate and focus at one point—in the packet,—which follows the pupil and is always in the possession of his teacher.

THE TEACHER

A Teacher is one, who has liberty, and time, and heart enough, and head enough, to be a master in the kingdom of life; one, whose delight it has been to study mind, not in books, but in the strange realities of dull and ignorant pupils; one, who has found joy in darting a ray of light into dark corners, and wakening up hope and interest in the scared lesson-learners who have not learnt; one, who can draw out latent power from the lowest, and quicken, inspirit, and impart, new senses to the highest.

From Theory and Practice of Teaching—By Edward Thring

The Teachers College Meets Individual Differences

EDNA DEAN BAKER

National Kindergarten and Elementary College, Evanston, Illinois

MUCH time and effort has been expended in determining and meeting the individual differences of children in school, and little time and effort in comparison to a careful study of the same problem in the training of adult students who are to be the teachers of these children. There is in some quarters still a surprising ignorance of the individual differences of adult students and a happy-go-lucky attitude on the part of the administrator in the office and the teacher in the classroom as to the fate of these different individuals if they fail to fit into the institution of higher education and are sloughed off by the well oiled machinery at the end of the first quarter or the first year as so much waste.

A conscientious attempt, however, is being made in several of our teachers colleges to know the individual differences of the students and to find ways and means of making intelligent use of this information, with a full realization that in no other way can the individual be educated and the right kind of teachers produced. While I shall attempt in this paper to describe the methods that have been employed at the National Kindergarten and Elementary College in an experimental approach to this problem, the ways and means discussed are by no means unique to this institution but are in use in a variety of schools in both the lower and higher field.

Our first step in meeting the individual differences of adult students is to find out all we can about the student before she enters the College, upon entrance, for the full time she remains in the institution, and after she graduates. There is a careful and continuous record kept of each individual from the beginning to the end of her contact with the school. The means used to secure the information on this record are the forms filled out by the student herself for various departments of the College; the forms used by her references; various physical, intelligence, achievement, and special abilities tests; interviews with the student and members of her family; observation of the student made upon her first visits to the College, at entrance, in her classes, in recreational activities, in her dormitory life and during student teaching; and tests taken during her course.

THE PERSONNEL COMMITTEE

All the members of the administrative staff and faculty who come into contact with the student are actively engaged in adding to this fund of information which makes her known as an individual,—with her needs, interests, characteristics, and possibilities. The or-

ganization which makes possible the pooling of all this information and the furthering of the welfare and opportunity for self-development of each individual is the Personnel Committee. All members of the faculty are members of the General Committee on Personnel. A smaller committee composed of the president, all the members of the testing department, and a representative from every other department in the school constitutes the working group, which at intervals reports to the whole faculty. Within this second committee are several sub-committees composed of the individuals most interested in a specific phase of the problem who work intensively on their own phase and bring in their results or decisions to the second committee for criticism and discussion.

For instance, a committee of which the Registrar of the College was chairman, the recorder, psychologists, and chairman of the supervision department were members, worked for several weeks on the revision and extension of the application blank for entering students in order to make it more effective in securing the information needed, not only to determine the eligibility of the student for entrance including her fitness for teaching, but also to ascertain as many of her individual characteristics and needs as possible. Another sub-committee with one of the physicians as chairman worked on a letter to be sent by our medical department to each student's family physician, for the purpose of securing the health history of the incoming student and understanding her physical condition better. A third sub-committee worked upon a faculty advisory system that should function in providing a faculty friend for each fifteen or twenty students who would do more than furnish perfunctory advice.

It has been the purpose of the Personnel Committee to use, as quickly as it has been secured and properly tabulated, all information in aiding the student's physical welfare and her intellectual and moral-social development. It may be interesting to indicate how the different departments of the College function in this scheme. Every department registers its information with the Personnel Committee and in turn shares in the total information available about the student and uses its knowledge to help that student as far as its jurisdiction makes possible.

The first department, as a rule, to come in contact with the student is the Registrar's. From the time the student sends in her first request until graduation and in fact for many years after graduation, the Registrar is very much aware of her individual needs and characteristics.

REGISTRATION INFORMATION

The Registrar's office, however, gives the first consideration to the entering student. It asks her high school principal and one of her teachers to fill out a blank for her. The principal's blank gives the subjects which she completed with the grades earned, as well as any subjects which she dropped or failed in. He tells in what quarter of the class she stands, and also if she has demonstrated academic interest, honesty, cooperation, loyalty and other moral-social qualities which are desirable for a prospective teacher to possess. The teacher to whom the student has given the character blank supplements the principal's statement and adds information on

any physical weakness or difficulty. From the student's blank we learn that she is an only child, or one of several; that her parents are providing the means for her to attend College, or that she expects to pay her own way; that she is interested in certain sports and desires to continue them during College; that she has been reading certain books, and is a member of a certain church. We also learn something of her home background, her father's profession or occupation; if he attended highschool or college; her mother's profession or occupation and whether she attended highschool or college.

All of this information influences the registration committee in accepting or rejecting the application. For instance: the prospective student gives on her blank the name of her family physician and if the teacher who has filled in a blank, has indicated that the student has a physical defect, the physician at the College communicates with the family physician and advises the Registrar later to accept or reject the applicant. To be sure every item on the blanks is not immediately associated with every applicant, but as the year goes on the experiences of the individual stand out sometimes in bold relief as the young woman becomes more or less conspicuous in class work or extra curricular activities.

With this background of information the registrar and faculty plan to orient the student in the College by asking her to arrive several days before the upper classmen and at this time ample opportunity is given to become acquainted with the faculty and with some of the more important standards, ideals, and customs of the institution; to become familiar with the buildings and to acquire the right attitude toward the battery of tests which she is asked to take. Part of this objective is accomplished through personal conferences and informal meetings with members of the faculty, and part by assemblies, parties, and excursions. Each one of the faculty advisors is present during this period, having previously carefully studied the application forms of all the girls in her list of advisees; she plans definitely to meet and help in every way her fifteen or twenty advisees.

MEASUREMENT—WHAT, WHEN, WHY, AND HOW

During *freshman week* the Department of Measurement gives tests to all freshmen in order to assist the Registrar in grading and grouping for classes and to help each department to adjust better to the needs of the individual student. Using 1926–27 as an illustration of the plan in operation, there was an enrolment in September of 259 students who were given the following tests at the time of registration:

1. Otis Group Intelligence Examination for Advanced Students, Form B.
2. Cross English Test, Form B.
3. Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test, Grades 9, 10, 11, 12.
4. Monroe's General Standardized Survey Scales in Arithmetic, Grades 6, 7, 8.
5. Ayres' Gettysburg Edition Penmanship Test.
6. A spelling test based upon the Ayres' List of one thousand most commonly used words.
7. A voice test.
8. A piano test.
9. A physical examination.

A summary of the results obtained on each of the tests and the use made of those results follows:

1. The Otis Intelligence Examination:

a. The norm for college freshmen is 130.
b. Range of scores, 58 to 197.
c. Average score, 153.
d. Median score, 155.
e. Mode, 152½.
f. 85 per cent of the group scored above norm.
g. 15 per cent of the group scored below norm.

2. The Cross English Test:

a. The norm for college freshmen is 140.
b. Range of scores, 54 to 164.
c. Average score, 138.
d. Mode, 135.
e. 47 per cent of the group scored above norm.
f. 53 per cent of the group scored below norm.

On this test a score of 131 and below indicates that a student is in the lower quarter of the college freshman population with respect to her standing in English. We found that 86 of the 259 students, or 34 per cent of the group, scored below 132. These students were required to take an elementary course in English before being allowed to enroll in the regular freshman English course. It was hoped in this way to raise their achievement by giving them individual attention. At the end of the semester 85 per cent of this low group in English had received grades of "D" or better, and were allowed to continue with the more advanced English work.

Because a high correlation had been found in 1925 between the results on the Otis Test and the English Test, it was thought best to section the freshman class on the combined rating on the two tests, thereby recognizing not only the student's native ability as measured by the intelligence examination but also the use that had been made of that native ability. The idea back of the sectioning was that of providing homogeneous grouping in order to care better for individual differences. The two scores were added together and averaged and then the girls were ranked from lowest to highest on the basis of this average score. Fifty-eight girls who had a score of 159 or above constituted the high group, known as Group D. Sixty-five girls who scored between 145 and 158.5 were put into Group C, the second highest group. Groups A and B were made by arranging all the rest of the girls, approximately half of the group, and those making the lowest scores on the two tests, in alphabetical order and dividing them into two groups of as nearly the same size as possible. Group A contained 58 girls, and Group B contained 59 girls. We hoped that such an arrangement of the lowest girls would, while providing rather homogeneous grouping in all that made average or lower than average scores, prevent the stultifying effect that would most certainly result if the very lowest girls were grouped together. As it was, the lowest ones were scattered throughout the whole lower half of the class and could benefit by the stimulating effect which the brighter girls in a class can exert.

3. Monroe's Standardized Silent Reading Test, Grades 9, 10, 11, 12:

a. The norm is 100 in rate, 32 in comprehension for the eighth grade. That is the norm we use.
b. 54 per cent of the group scored above norm.
c. 46 per cent of the group scored below norm.

4. Monroe's General Standardized Survey Scales in Arithmetic, Grades 6, 7, 8:

a. The eighth grade norm, which is the one we use, is 61.
b. 51 per cent of the group scored above norm.
c. 49 per cent of the group scored below norm.

5. Ayres Penmanship Test:

a. 70 is the quality that we feel a prospective teacher should be able to write; hence, that is used as our norm.
b. 25 per cent of the group scored above norm.
c. 75 per cent of the group scored below norm.

6. Spelling Test:

a. Since 50 words included in the test are taken from the one thousand most commonly used words, we feel that 100 should be the norm.
b. 15 per cent of the group scored 100.
c. 85 per cent of the group scored below 100.

All freshman students are required to take a course in Technique, in which they receive drill in reading, penmanship, spelling, and arithmetic. We used the scores made on these tests to group the girls in order of ability for their work in Technique. The classification could not be rigid because a girl might be good in one subject and poor in another, but in general the classification held and proved helpful. All girls who scored above the norms in the four subjects were excused after a few class meetings from further drill. Those remaining in class were tested every sixth week and if they had attained the standard in any subject were excused from further drill in it. Those failing at the end of the semester were required to complete the work satisfactorily before graduation.

The percentages of students above and below norm in these drill subjects at the end of the semester are given below. Compared with the percentage at the beginning of the year, they show what progress was made.

1. In silent reading, 95 per cent were above norm at the end of the training period (54 per cent had been above norm in the fall).
2. In arithmetic, 90 per cent were above norm at the end of the training period (51 per cent had been above norm in the fall).
3. In penmanship, 89 per cent were above norm at the end of the training period (25 per cent had been above norm in the fall).
4. In spelling, 71 per cent were above norm at the end of the training period (15 per cent had been above norm in the fall).

Correlations were figured between the scores made on the intelligence examination and on each of the achievement tests, and the following results obtained. The correlations are given in order, from the highest to lowest.

1. English and intelligence	0.63
2. Silent reading and intelligence	0.54
3. Arithmetic and intelligence	0.37
4. Spelling and intelligence	0.33
5. Penmanship and intelligence	0.05

While the figures vary somewhat, the order of the correlations remained the same as for 1925. The figures for English and silent reading are high enough to denote a significant relationship between these two subjects and intelligence.

7. Voice Test: Students on entering the College are given individual voice tests. Two hundred and fifty-nine voices were tested in September, 1926.

A record is made of any vocal experi-

ence, such as Assembly singing, chorus or glee club, choir, private voice lessons, etc., which the students may have had during the high school years and in some cases in the years spent in college. The student is also questioned concerning the study of piano or any other instrument, work in ear training, theory, musical history and appreciation in order to determine the amount of musical background. The voice test consists of one simple exercise carried through various keys in order to determine the range and quality of the voice, its excellence or the contrary and any peculiarities or special needs. An equally simple ear test gives a line on the extent of musical memory and the ability to hear correctly. These findings are noted and the voice is assigned to the part for which it is best suited in part singing. A more extended hearing is given later to those who have had some voice study and are able to sing songs.

On completion of the hearings the voices are grouped. One group, comprising the best voices, is given the opportunity of practice in the expert singing body known as the College choir.

A second group is placed under observation. These students have either inferior voices, some undeveloped because of youth, or because of entire lack of use, or they have some vocal fault or tendency which needs correcting. At times voices otherwise good are placed under observation because of weakness or lack in some register, generally the upper voices, which would make the singing of kindergarten songs very difficult for the student unless the songs were keyed too low for children's voices. The students in this group are given a rehearing after their Freshman year of Voice Training to see if they have obtained the desired results.

The students in the third very small group are asked to take individual instruction during a period long enough to develop ability to "carry a tune" or voice sufficient to do so, or to correct some outstanding vocal defect.

In last year's entering class there were six girls notable for voices of outstanding quality and singing ability, 33 were called for choir, 66 were placed under observation, and 13 were advised to take individual work. As will be seen the great majority of the class falls into none of these three groups. From these latter students is drawn the waiting list for the choir for which there are always more applications than places, and the chorus of 100 which sings for the Spring Festival.

8. Piano Test: One hundred and ninety-eight students were given an individual piano test with the following results:

32 made a grade of A
31 made a grade of B
68 made a grade of C
22 made a grade of D

Forty-five girls received no grade because they could not play at all. The members of this last group were advised to take individual lessons in piano before completing their college work.

9. Physical Examinations: In the College there were 250 complete physical examinations made. A careful history was taken of each case, and the history supplemented by correspondence with the family physician where indicated. Rechecks were made on the physical condition of former classes where marked defects had been found and seniors were

checked before graduation. Recommendations for restricted gymnasium or no gymnasium were made to the Physical Education Department. A detailed list of major and minor defects were given the President's office; cases were referred to specialists where needed. Reports were sent to House-mothers where girls needed careful watching, and similar reports made to the Supervision Department. Overweight girls and underweight girls were listed and recommendations made for diet supervision. Frequent weights were also taken. There were:

18 cases of major defects
6½ cases of minor defects
7 marked eye defects
6 ear defects
2 cases of deformity of extremities
2 marked speech defects

From the first of the year it was evident that there was a growing need for regular physician's office hours for the school. An attempt was made to meet this need. An average of fifteen girls a week was seen by the physician and aid or advice given. Contacts to contageous diseases in dormitory or at student teaching duty were watched or quarantined or cultures of throats taken.

Besides the specific ways in which we have indicated the use of tests, there are many other illustrations of where they are valuably applied. Before a girl can work at the "supply case," or be cashier in the cafeteria, her arithmetic test score and her progress in the arithmetic course are noted; before any girl can hold any office of responsibility, such as editor of the school paper, or editor of the Student Annual, her entrance examination record is referred to and if her scores are found to be low, her name is omitted from the list of nominations by the Department of Measurement to whom the list is referred. Failure in work or in office is thus prevented and success in class work made doubly possible by conserving time and strength.

PROBLEMS IN PLACEMENT

The Supervision Department in placing students in their student teaching positions use all the information that has been secured by the Personnel Committee and attempt in the following ways to meet their individual differences: Both the social and mental caliber of each student is considered in relation to the type of school in which she might be placed for her student teaching and the quality of teaching existent in the particular school. The students with the best social and mental ranking are often sent to those teachers who can best meet their abilities. In case a student has an excellent mind but lacks a broad social background she is placed very carefully with those room teachers who have patience and an interest in filling the social gaps. Then dispositions of both room teacher and student settle some questions as to placement very quickly for it seems inevitable that some combinations wouldn't work.

The health record of a student is often a factor, for those students with physical handicaps cannot be expected to take some of the longest trips. In some cases student teaching is postponed until the health is improved. The financial status of a student is also a determining factor for many of the long trips are expensive. Those students who are working for their room and board are given locations near at hand

so that time in transportation may be used to advantage in the home. The foreign students are placed with extreme care so that the adjustments will be made as quickly as possible. Those girls who are especially talented in music, dramatic art, art, etc., are given those schools which have either requested specific talent or in which there are teachers who are able to appreciate the talent.

During the student teaching period if any difficulty arises between the student and the room teacher and that difficulty is known by the Supervision Department, the problem is met by conferences, by explanations, or change of student. If the student does not seem to be profiting by the situation because of illness or absence of the room teacher she is sent to another school. In case the student is very low in her teaching ability her case is discussed by members of the Supervision Department and she is observed by at least two supervisors. A certain number of low grades results in additional teaching, and if with every opportunity, the student does not improve, in dismissal from the College because of proved unfitness for teaching.

Not only in its required course of theory and practice does the College consider the individual differences, but also in the program for extra curricular activities. Different individualities have varying interests. Technical training in any profession tends, more or less to turn all into the same mold. Therefore it is particularly important that provision be made in a professional school for the expression and development of individual tastes and abilities. Clubs of various kinds furnish at least a partial outlet for such activity. At present the College has the following clubs: Athletic, Dramatics, International, Book, Glee, Orchestra, Public Speaking, Camera. There is some overlapping, but comparatively little. About 40 per cent of the students in the College have voluntarily chosen the particular type of extra-curricular activity in which they are most interested.

The Year Book and the monthly newspaper furnish an additional field of work. Another grouping of individuals is (*a*) leaders, executives, organizers, and (*b*) followers. A large number of comparatively small clubs offers opportunity for those girls whose inclinations turn toward leadership. Often unsuspected ability for such leadership is discovered through the work of the clubs while the various grades of offices provide work of varying degrees of difficulty to meet the needs of the embryo leaders.

All these ways of meeting individual differences, and others which the limits of this paper do not permit me to discuss, would be futile were not the members of the administrative staff and faculty imbued with a deep sense of the worth of the individual, a human interest in every girl, and a tremendous desire to help in the overcoming of limitations and the development of latent possibilities.

Individual Differences and Creativity in Art

ELLA VICTORIA DOBBS

University of Missouri

IN THE field of Art little children suffer from two handicaps. The classroom teacher, all too often, lacks training and is either unaware of occasions or methods by which to cultivate the impulse to create beauty, or appreciating her own lack of training fears to attempt much guidance lest she do more harm than good.

On the other hand the trained specialist has in many instances been better trained in the principles of Art Expression than in the principles of Child Psychology and her interest in the thing produced is greater than her interest in the producer. Often she is unable to come down to the child's level of appreciation and give suggestions which will be understood.

"Sound theory," says Professor Laurie, "is sound practice become conscious of itself."

Reset in terms of kindergarten practice this means that we learn *by doing many times until we discover* by analysis which of our processes please us most and we are able to repeat with intention and purpose what at first was accidental or incidental.

Professor Laurie's statement emphasizes the fact that much experimentation and practice in the concrete precede and are the essential basis of rules and principles. It means that free expression comes first and that out of practical experience rules and principles evolve and are given names which have real meaning.

The little child comes to us a bundle of boundless energy and eager curiosity which impel him to test out experimentally every material which comes to his hand. He must know what it is and what he can do with it.

In earlier times all education was individual. Later when the numerous time saving advantages of the grade system were discovered we became so enthusiastic over the emphasis on similarities that class instruction became mass instruction and differences were overlooked. The pendulum is now swinging in the other direction and we are in danger of seeing individual differences so large that again we may overlook important similarities, for it is still true that children of a given age and environment are very much alike in their chief characteristics, although differing more or less in minor details. All will be interested in the same sort of work,—making pictures, playing house, building stores, dramatizing stories, for example, but they will vary greatly in their manipulative skill, in their power to visualize, in their initiative, in their color sense, in their originality, in their independence and crea-

tive impulse or in their tendency to imitate and follow suggestions.

But these individual differences in ability bring differences in the product which may be turned to helpful account in making substantial progress,—substantial in that it builds upon a foundation of actual accomplishment.

For example, in the universal project of making a picture of a house the following steps in procedure may follow each other quite naturally. Let us assume that the house has a setting of green grass and blue sky. (In many cases with young children this will mean a blue streak at the top and a green streak at the bottom of the page, but the wise teacher will make haste slowly on this point, lest for some children, to bring grass and sky together will be to tell a lie and picture the impossible—for lo! is not the sky over our heads and the grass beneath our feet!!) When our pictures are finished we shall wish all to admire them and a brief study of our display will bring out helpful points as we look for interesting differences.[1] The grass in one picture seems very tall and when we examine it carefully we see that this effect is produced by an up and down stroke of the crayon. In another case the sky looks cloudy and on examination we find this is due to heavier color in some places. We decide to put our discoveries to use and draw another house, and this time we all make tall grass and cloudy skies. The first expression may have been quite accidental but having been done and analyzed it is easily imitated. What was accidental or incidental now becomes purposeful and intentional.

[1] No classroom can be considered well equipped which has not a display board, even if it is only a sheet of wall board leaning against the wall.

When we again put up our pictures for admiration, in addition to pleasure in our tall grass we notice other differences. Perhaps some houses stand firmly upright and others seem in danger of falling down and we note the vertical lines of the more stable houses. In the next attempt all strive for that effect. Just what may come out in the sketches is as impossible to forecast as is the order in which concrete examples of fundamental principles may offer the psychological moment in which to emphasize a given point. The teacher may wait a long time with one class for the dawning of the idea of the horizon line where sky and grass meet. In another class the idea may appear early. When it does appear with it will come irregularities that suggest hills and later a proportioning which will suggest distance. Human life, animal life, lines of action, objects near and objects far away, windy days when trees bend, sunset skies, all and many more appear in time and may be analyzed and repeated time and time again until expression becomes easy and technique improves. The order of procedure is of little importance, but it is highly essential that each forward step be taken upon a stable foundation and with clear understanding. It is a case of "sound practice becoming conscious of itself" and slowly evolving its sound theory.

Another factor in helping budding genius to unfold is the warm sunshine of approval. When work is first finished we may be proud and satisfied or disappointed and discouraged. In either case we need praise and encouragement. Comments on our weak points at this time seem to brand our work as failure. But tomorrow, just before our next

attempt, a second examination may safely be a little more critical. Having enjoyed our success of yesterday we are ready to beat our own best today and we are willing to examine our work to see where improvement may most readily be made. What would have been stinging criticism yesterday is today only the suggested opportunity for greater success. The wise teacher will select carefully the differences she emphasizes and choose only those that make progress easy. She will deliberately pass over those differences which involve complications. She will be seeing the child and his development large and tangible results quite small in proportion. These will be mere indications of the progress of the child's development.

As Satis Coleman says of music in the Foreword to her new book "Creative Music in the Home," so is it true of graphic art, that what the child does to Art in his creative efforts is far less important than what his work does *to him.*

NEW I. K. U. PUBLICATION

A Study of the Vocabulary of Children Before Entering the First Grade is just off the press! This study represents several years' work of the Child Study Committee, Madeline Darrough Horn, Chairman. The problem was to find the vocabulary of normal children before entering the first grade. There are *kindergarten, picture,* and *word* lists. Conversation in the kindergarten and home were recorded verbatim. A set of questions was furnished to stimulate the children's vocabulary for the picture data.

For the first grade, the lists suggest:

Words to be used in beginning reading.

Words for the teacher's vocabulary in talking to the children.

A check on textbooks for beginners.

For the kindergarten, the lists suggest:

Words whose speech difficulties children should have mastered before entering first grade.

Words for the teacher's vocabulary in talking to the children.

A too exclusive emphasis of certain materials (crayons, sand, and scissors).

The new pamphlet is distributed by the International Kindergarten Union. Price 25¢ a copy—20¢ in lots of 25 or more.

Avenues of Spontaneity in Art

Blue-prints, Spatter Work, Drawing and Cutting

AGNES DAY

Geneseo State Teachers College, Geneseo, N. Y.

Growth in ability during a year is watched for by teachers and should be recorded. We want to help children to "go on" constantly. We want to help them before a feeling of dissatisfaction creeps in and at the critical moment when they see no means to a desired end. To do this is a test of real teaching ability. In creative art we know that spontaneity and free expression are essential. Science can demand exact results and uniformity. Scales for measuring growth here may be used without danger but this is not so in creative art. In the kindergarten and first three grades we give few directed lessons in drawing, and technique is not emphasized. Yet we, as teachers, want to know how to help, and we need some standards to keep in mind.

SUGGESTIONS FOR STIMULATING GROWTH

Record work. Keep a folder for each child—a large sheet of tagboard or heavy wrapping paper, folded once. Place some representative work in each folder every few weeks. At the end of the year let each child decorate his folder and take his work home. As a teacher, use the material to study the children's progress and for recording purposes.

Discussion should follow creative work, the criticisms being constructive and showing a "better way."

Work displayed on a bulletin board. The best of the work usually finds a place here but the work of each child should be occasionally displayed.

A purpose behind the work, as much as possible, e.g., a doily for a party; a basket for gathering nuts; a poster.

Standards within reach. Have each grade see the work of the grade following and preceding it.

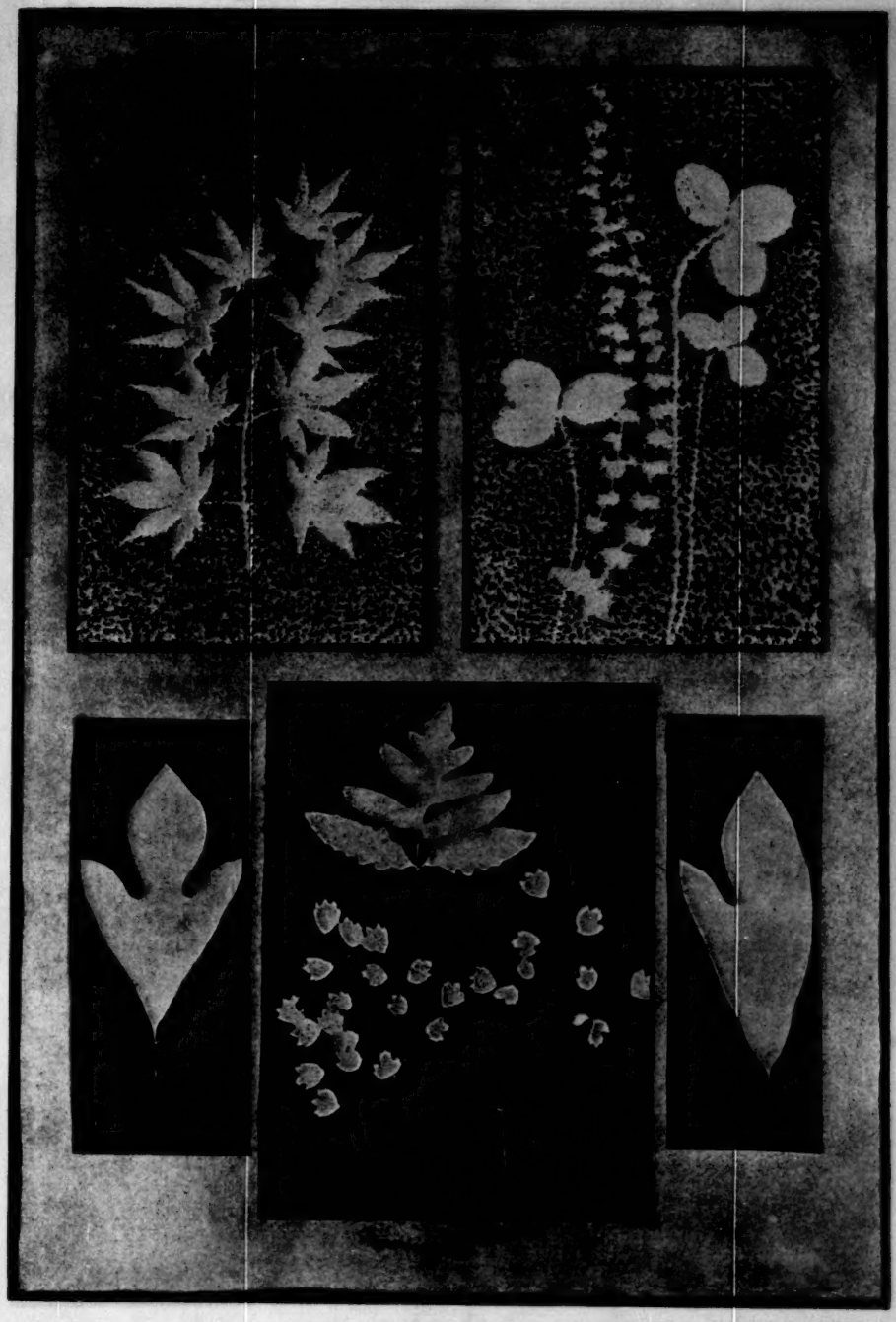
Friendly competition and coöperation. A frieze, illustrative of some real interest, may be planned and painted by the class. Each child may paint a tree. The class votes on the best one and the child who has made it paints this item on the frieze. The work for the entire frieze progresses in this fashion.

Stress some specific interest. A child has drawn a house particularly well. Have this child draw a house on the blackboard. When a child draws in demonstration, other children feel it quite possible for them. A teacher's work seems more in a realm out of reach.

Watching, on the part of the teacher, for suggestions given by the children which mean "readiness" on their part. While on an excursion the children look into the distance and talk about "little houses, way off there." This idea leads to a "horizon line" and "perspective," although these terms may not be used.

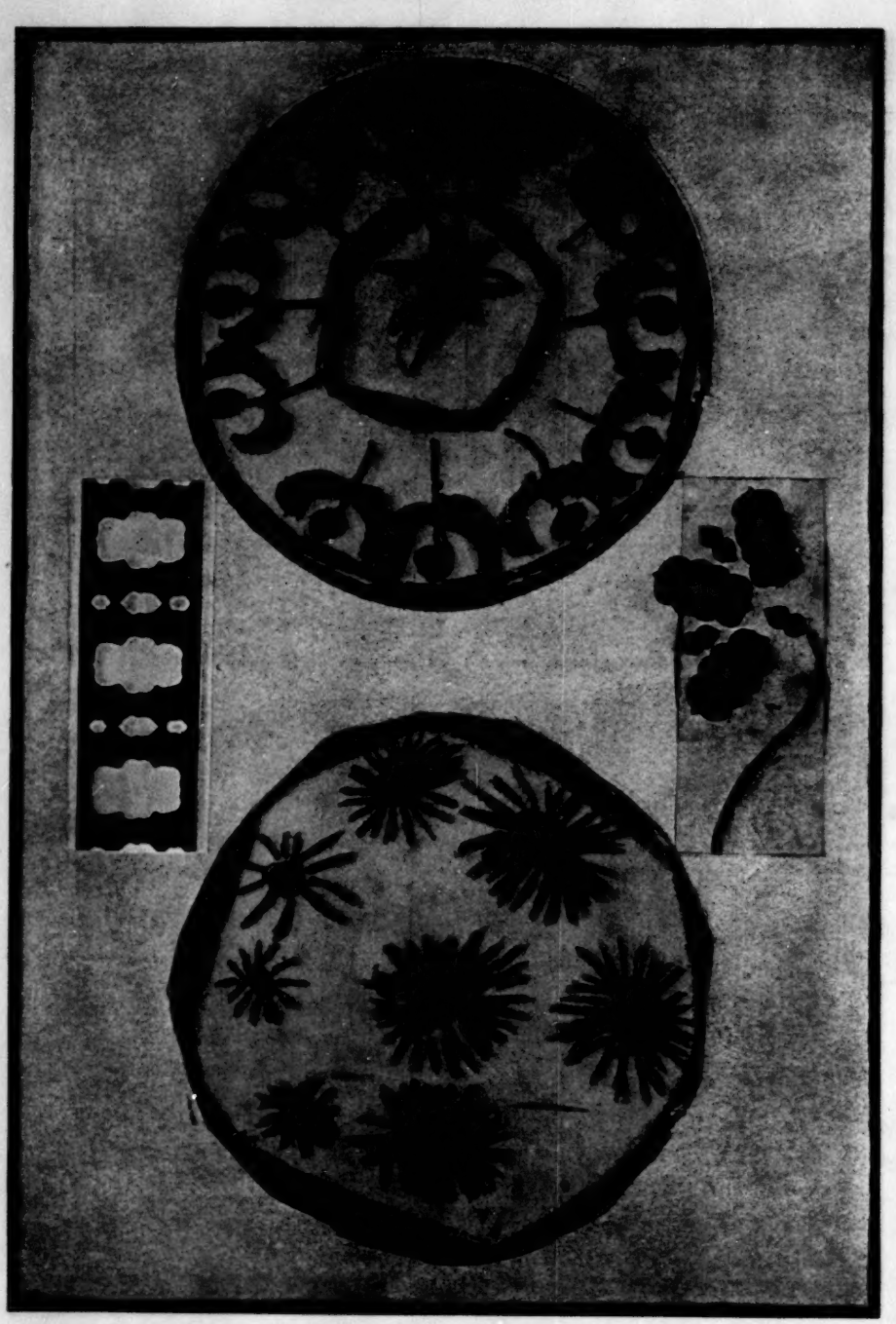
An occasional directed lesson by the teacher when need for such help is present, e.g., blueprints and spatter work.

An objective to be kept in mind when working with children and materials is the development of the aesthetic side of the work—the Fine Arts side which is always present in any creative work. Perhaps with a clearer understanding of how to go about it this objective may be kept in mind as well as other vital objectives, such as "joy in creating" and "skill in manipulating material."



PERFECT PICTURES OF LEAVES, GRASSES, AND FERNS CAN BE MADE THROUGH THE MEDIUM OF SPATTER WORK (TOP ROW) AND BLUE-PRINTS

The spatter work has a smoother appearence in the original



THE "HOLES" FROM SURPRISE CUTTINGS MAKE DESIGNS AND PICTURES
Only the form of the paper doilies is reproduced—the colors are equally interesting

Some of the simple, fundamental principles of art structure are balance, rhythm, and variety of form. An appreciation of these assets of beauty may be gained and applied long before they are known as principles of art structure or even as balance, rhythm, and variety of form.

The children make "surprise cuttings" (paper folded, holes cut on folds and then the paper opened). These decorate doilies or serve as stencil patterns. A variety in size and shape of holes in the cuttings adds to the beauty and interest of the design.

In the blue-prints we find a chance for variety of form. The fine grass looks daintier if contrasted with the heavy headed grass. The meadowrue is not as monotonous if the heavier leaf of the "sensitive fern" is used with it. We find that three leaves may make a more interesting group then just two and that two little leaves may balance one bigger one.

Children decorate paper doilies for the lunch table with crayons, paints, cut papers, or stick prints. A variety of forms decorate the square of circular doilies all the way round. Yet some children may have stopped the design half way around, calling it complete. In the group discussion, always following such work, a child may suggest "something needed at the other side." The idea of balance seems innate in some children.

BLUE-PRINTS

Materials used

Blue-print paper, obtained at any architect's or engineer's office or at stores carrying photographic supplies. A square yard may be purchased for 25¢ in an architect's office. Small quantities should be purchased as blue-print paper soon deteriorates. Keep it out of direct sunlight until placed, ready to print.

A frame, such as used in printing pictures—or any piece of window glass may be used. Bind the edges of this with passepartout or surgeons plaster to prevent cutting of fingers.

Pressed nature material, such as leaves, ferns, grasses, and evergreens.

Process

Clean the glass and arrange the pressed nature material on it. Cut the paper just a little smaller than the glass to be used. Place the blue-print paper over this (with the sensitive side toward it). If using window glass, place a stiff piece of cardboard over the blue-print paper. Elastic bands may be snapped over each end to hold all together. Turn over (glass side up) and place in the sun. A minute will be long enough if the sun is hot and bright, otherwise a little longer time is necessary. Remove blue-print paper and place it in a dish of water for ten minutes. Then lay the prints on newspaper to dry.

Method of procedure with children

Know your material, as a teacher, and then demonstrate to the class. Choose three or four of your most careful workers—or as many as you have frames—and let them each make a print.

Each of these children, one at a time, may serve as teacher and help a small group of the less skilful workers.

SPATTER WORK

Materials used

Any white paper which will take watercolor.
Pressed nature material.
An old toothbrush or any such bristle brush.
A skewer or any small stick.
A dish of ordinary washing bluing.

Process

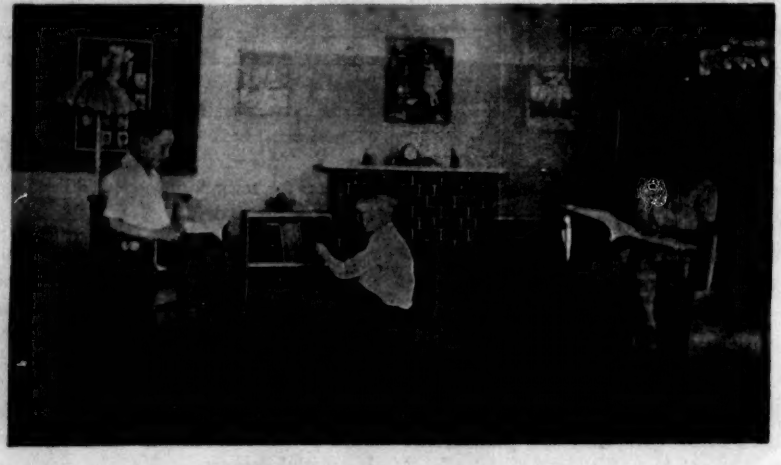
Spread newspapers where work is to be done. Place the white paper on the newspaper. Arrange pressed material on the white paper, using pins to hold it in place. Dip the brush into the bluing, being careful to use just a little and thus prevent dripping. Draw the stick *toward* you across the brush, letting the spatters dot the material. After the surface of the white paper is attractive as a background, remove pins in the nature material and lift it from the paper.

The Teachers' Laboratory

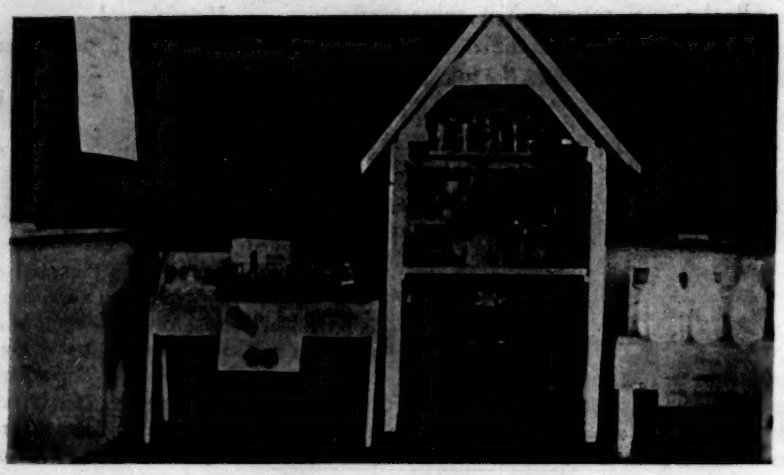
Each Child His Own Business Manager

Because of the complexity of the situation in the handling of the welath of materials used in creative work, the primary teachers of the Fairview School undertook to work out a more effective organization of the classroom through the proper care and distribution of materials used in the Free Work Period.

The problem, as we saw it, involved the collecting of materials, the proper equipment for the various types, the arrangement



He Makes His Own Furniture

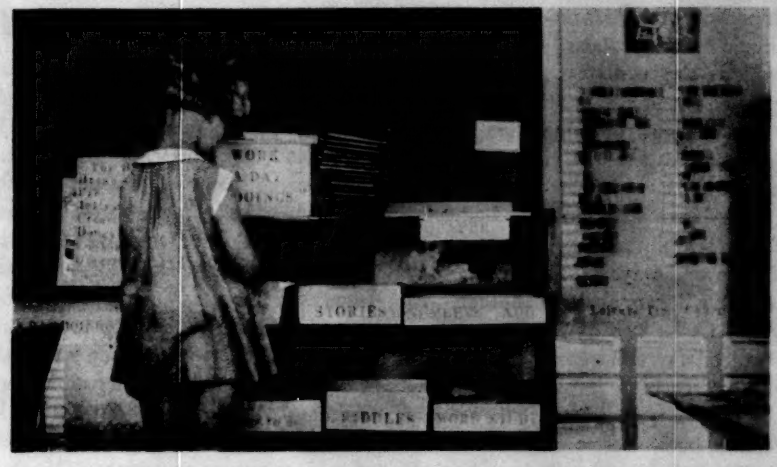


He Runs His Own Grocery

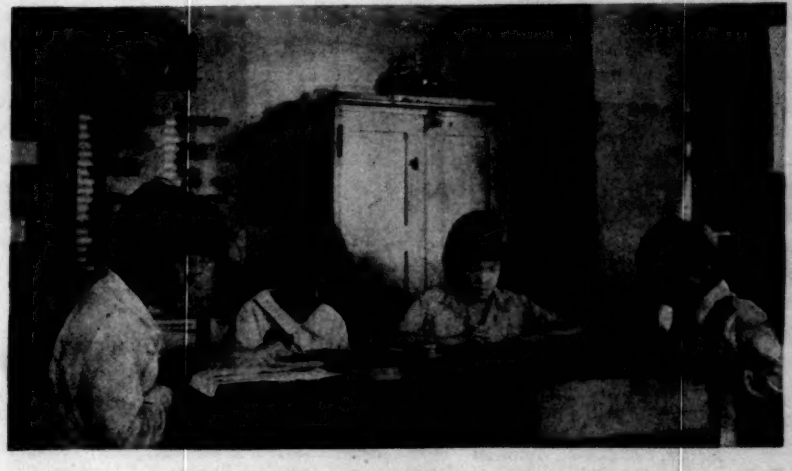
of these materials in the room for their more effective use, and the responsibility of the child in caring for, distributing, and using them.

thread, catalogues, wall paper, and nature materials such as seeds, leaves, and shells.

The materials were then arranged and labeled in a manner to enable each child to



EACH DECIDES FOR HIMSELF WHAT HE WISHES TO DO



EACH KEEPS AN INDIVIDUAL RECORD OF HIS PROGRESS

Through the efforts of the teacher, children, and parents, plenty of stimulating material was obtained. This material consisted of wooden and cardboard boxes of various sizes, scraps of lumber, spools, cloth,

independently get materials needed and to return them to their proper places when through with them.

A cupboard designated as a free work cupboard was the storage place for labeled

boxes containing general supplies such as needles, thread, raffia, yarn, paints, and a treasure box filled with numerous treasured pieces of colored paper, bright linings from envelopes, bits of tin foil and tissue paper.

Wall pockets in various places around the room made from cardboard, wood, cloth, or old window shades, took care of the different types of reading and arithmetic flash cards. On a bench or table were sets of supplementary readers with check questions in envelopes and a record sheet on which the child checked each lesson after he had completed it. The library books were taken care of in several ways. In one room they were kept on a library shelf, in another, on a library table. In two of the rooms, as a group project, the children made furniture for a library corner. From apple boxes, and orange crates were constructed a reading table, chairs, bookcases, a fireplace, davenport, a table for the nature study collection, and a magazine rack. In the rack were placed the Junior Red Cross magazines and other children's magazines which the children brought from home. In the library corner was hung a bulletin board on which original stories, poems, and booklets were pinned, and a library record chart on which each child pasted a minature book after his name for every book he read.

Each child had a shelf assigned to him on which to keep his work and individual materials. As a new project was started, he made a memorandum of it in the group record book, crossing it out when the work was finished.

Regulations governing the Free Period were made by the children and teacher together as the need arose. Worthwhile work must be chosen, workers must not interfere with one another's comfort or progress, etc. Each child as a worker was responsible for his own actions, his own materials, orderliness of the room, and care and distribution of the group materials.

By giving the children a part in the planning and distribution, they felt a keener responsibility and often suggested methods of taking care of materials. Much of the routine of the room was eliminated for the teacher by making the children responsible, at the same time creating happier children by giving them a part in the organization of the room.

GLADYS R. CAMERON.

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Note: Dr. Davis and Miss Tall also represent the Editorial Committee.

The New and Notable

Report of Convention of American Home Economics Association

The members of the American Home Economics Association are deeply interested in all matters concerning the child and are confronted perhaps more frequently than any other professional group with the problems dealing particularly with the child and his place in the family. This was evident in the program of the Association at its annual meeting, in Des Moines, Iowa, June 25–29.

At the afternoon program devoted to the presentation of progress during the year in the various fields of home economics interest, Anna E. Richardson, field worker for the Association, presented a summary of recent progress in child development and parental education.

An exceptionally large meeting in which several sections joined was devoted to the consideration of the influence of family relationships and home management on child development, emphasing the fact that if we wish lasting results from our efforts in the child's behalf, we will have to give definite, constructive thought to the solution of certain specific problems of home life.

Judge Florence E. Allen in an address entitled *Significant Factors in Home Life as Revealed by the Courts* insisted that the home must be the ethical and spiritual center of the family, that influences affecting the home come from without as well as from within and that the parent has not discharged his full obligation until through active participation in civic affairs he has sought to produce those conditions in government which will benefit rather than menace the home.

The nutrition needs of children were represented in reports of research which included *Studies in Infant Nutrition* by Dr. Amy Daniels and *A Study of School Lunches* by Esther S. Davies.

ALICE L. EDWARDS,
Executive Secretary.

Report of Meeting of Department of Kindergarten-Primary Education, National Education Association

Three thought provoking sessions of the Department were held on July 2nd, 3rd, and 5th in Minneapolis, Minnesota. The central theme, *The Whole Child as Influenced by the Group of Which He is a Member—Home, Community, School*, was developed by Belle Farley Murray of Saginaw, Michigan; Alice Temple, director, Kindergarten-Primary Department, School of Education, University of Chicago; Livia Youngquist, Horace Mann School, Winnetka, Illinois; Stella Louise Wood, principal, Kindergarten and Primary Training School, Minneapolis, Minnesota, and Miriam Brubaker, Nursery School Director, National Kindergarten and Elementary College, Evanston, Illinois.

Mrs. Murray described the home as "a family dwelling place *and* an atmosphere created by the personalities and activities of those within the house. This home atmosphere may give to the family, life abundant, or mere existence. The child has a right to come into a home established because two people, fit in every vital way, have a genuine love for each other and a desire for children. He is entitled to loving and intelligent care and to a home which is a place attracting him and his friends to its kindly influences rather than a force repelling them. This order drawn upon the homes to supply both good heredity and environment is a large one. That there are so many fine people in the world is a tribute to the homes of the past; that there are so many misfits is a challenge to the homes of the future. To us

is awarded the responsibility of searching out methods of home improvement and then giving to both future mothers and fathers that training which will make a most desirable influence in the child's life, which will furnish the world a genuinely improved home product."

Habit formation in relation to emotional life was discussed by Dr. John Anderson, director, Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota. Emotional responses are learned responses; and such exciting responses as anger and fear result when the individual has learned no other more efficient pattern of behavior for that situation. If we would train experts in human adjustments we must educate the habit systems with a great variety of responses to meet a variety of situations. The child has then gained control of his reaction system and may be expected to "keep his head."

When the school and home fail to fully understand the child, the child guidance clinic jointly associated with school systems can further that understanding. Dr. H. E. Chamberlain, director, Child Guidance Clinic, Minneapolis, observed that the clinic as often assists the adults as the child, but that primarily it shares with parents and teachers the opportunity to assist children to grow up with confidence and courage to cope with the changes of constructive modern life.

Hazel King of Trenton, Michigan, gave a "visualized" rendering of Maurice Maeterlinck's Bluebird, using scenery and models of her own construction.

Of particular interest to the department was Jane Roberts' report of the research committee's poetry experiment carried on this past year in Gary, Indiana, and Kalamazoo, Michigan. The results give such a promising indication of what our measure for poetry, from the children's standpoint, should be that it is hoped the experiment can be continued next year until the number of children included will be large enough to make the results more reliable.

The Kindergarten-Primary luncheon completed this most successful series of meetings. Eleanor Troxell, president, presided.

Miss Barbour, president of the International Kindergarten Union, brought cordial greetings from that organization to the assembled group. Miss Hahn, president of the Primary Council, sent a very happy greeting from that organization, with regrets that she could not be present.

Miriam Brubaker, director of the nursery school at National Kindergarten and Elementary College, spoke on *The Child in his Own Play Group;* Dr. John Chamberlain, Head of the Child Guidance Clinic of Minneapolis, Minnesota, spoke on *How the Child Guidance Clinic Helps the Teacher;* and Stella Louise Wood, head of Miss Wood's Kindergarten-Primary Training School, spoke on *The Child in His Contemporary Group.*

The following delegates to the National Council of Education were announced: Agnes Burke, Teachers College, Columbia University; Frances Berry, Kindergarten-Primary Supervisor, Baltimore, Md.; and Caroline Barbour, State Teachers College, Superior, Wisconsin.

Officers for the coming year were announced as follows: *President*, Mary Dabney Davis, Specialist in Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education, Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. *Vice-President*, Winifred Bain, a fellowship student at Teachers College, Columbia University, and formerly of the State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. *Secretary*, Florence Davenport, St. Paul, Minnesota.

M. ELIZABETH BRUGGER,
Secretary.

Book Reviews

Editor, ALICE TEMPLE

Teachers' problems as a basis of supervision. The best recent studies of reading and the curriculum have been written either from the standpoint of scientific investigations concerning the learning process as related to individual growth and progress or upon the selection of reading material either from adult or childhood usage. It is therefore an interesting departure to have a study of reading[1] designed to aid teachers and supervisors by the discovery, first of those questions in the teaching of reading, which by their own admission, constantly puzzle teachers, and secondly, to offer a "thorough study of the literature" on the subject which offers the "best solution scientific investigation has yet found."

In securing the questions, teachers on the campus of George Peabody College were requested to furnish a list of the reading problems about which they wished more information. From them more than one thousand questions pertaining to reading were obtained. These were carefully sorted and tabulated under appropriate heads. To increase the range of the investigation students from other teachers colleges, widely distributed geographically, were asked to contribute their reading problems. For over a period of three years these questions were collected, and a marked similarity was noted in the questions during the entire period, thus making the authors feel assured that they had secured fundamental and typical queries.

In arranging their book, the authors organized their material into two parts. Part one concerns itself with the general principles of supervision. After defining supervision as "assistance rendered teachers which (1) enables them to do better the desirable classroom activities they will do any, (2) reveals to them higher types of activities, (3) makes these possible of attainment," the writers proceed to discuss the fundamental principles of supervision and their application through a supervisory campaign, offering the Louisville campaign for the improvement of instruction in reading as a concrete example.

The definition of supervision from the reviewer's point of view is inadequate and misleading in that it does not offer as the primary function of supervision, the sharing with the teachers the responsibility for securing individual growth and improvement in reading throughout the system. "To render assistance" smacks of patronage, "sharing responsibility" breathes of a cooperative, democratic enterprise.

The supervisory campaign includes (1) use of a standard test for diagnosis and to direct growth, (2) use of charts and graphs to visualize conditions, (3) an analytical study of causes of pupils' attainments, (4) formulating remedial policies, (5) using the best teachers to demonstrate desirable procedures, (6) supplying specifically helpful literature, (7) supplying a quantity of desirable teaching materials, such as flash cards and the like, (8) giving to each teacher the manual of her basal text, (9) collecting interesting and readable material for pupils' use, (10) making a survey of children's spontaneous reading interests, (11) organizing pupils reading clubs, (12) aiding teachers to carry on their own classroom surveys as to the growth and improvement of their

[1] Julia M. Harris, H. L. Donovan, Thomas Alexander. *Supervision and Teaching of Reading.* Richmond, Va.: Johnson Publishing Company. Pp xix + 474.

pupils in reading, and (13) inviting each teacher to contribute to a yearbook on the teaching of reading in her school. This campaign definitely carries on what the definition seems to lack, a thorough-going, cooperative enterprise.

In part two of the book, each chapter starting with the actual questions of the teachers, organizes its materials around them as they have been grouped under appropriate heads. Each topic is given a concise, yet adequate treatment. Reports and scientific investigations bearing upon the questions are included in the discussions. The book is scientific in its attitude, reporting both the negative as well as the positive findings. A selected bibliography is appended to each chapter. The chapters thus treated are: word difficulties, physical difficulties, phonics, primary reading, reading in the intermediate grades, motivation, individual differences, tests and measurements, and materials.

To teachers the book should prove of great value. In the first place an objective study of this kind, revealing as it does teachers' judgments of their own difficulties, is of immense interest and worth. In the second place, the scholarly way in which a large mass of scientific investigations have been sifted and brought together to shed light upon these perplexing problems is of immediate aid to teachers.

To supervisors the objective accumulation of specific problems that teachers announce as their difficulties, together with the possible solutions gathered from reliable and accurate sources, with a selected bibliography upon each problem, is a mine of valuable data.

FLORENCE EILAU BAMBERGER,
Johns Hopkins University.

The behaviorist writes on child care. Watson's most recent volume is a popular presentation of the applications of certain general principles of psychology to the problems which the average parent has to meet in rearing young children.[2] The author's conclusions are drawn in part from the experiments which he conducted while at Johns Hopkins University. The book appears to be intended primarily for the lay reader, but it would serve a better purpose if it were used to provoke discussion in a group already thoroughly trained in psychology and allied sciences.

The first chapter gives, in some detail, methods of experimenting with young children. It is to be hoped that the average parent who reads this material will not be minded to repeat the procedures which Dr. Watson so ably describes. The next three chapters deal with the emotions. Much of the material which these chapters contain is highly controversial in nature. It is doubtful if many of the group whose interest is primarily in parental education would agree with the author's use of fears as a means of control or with certain of his statements in regard to anger. It is equally doubtful that Watson could secure complete agreement with his viewpoint as to the necessity of complete absence of displays of affection between parent and child. His statement in this regard would make an excellent topic for a discussion to which the more modern students of Freud might make an interesting contribution.

Chapters V and VI on "Night and Daytime Care of the Child" and "What Shall I Tell My Child About Sex" contain material of value to parents and to others interested in the welfare of young children, but this material would require much wisdom for its proper use.

ADA HART ARLITT,
University of Cincinnati.

[2] John B. Watson, *Psychological Care of Infant and Child.* New York: W. W. Norton & Co. Inc., 1928.

In The Magazines

Editor, ELLA RUTH BOYCE

CHILDREN, THE MAGAZINE FOR PARENTS has in its August issue a symposium on *To Spank or Not To Spank*. This topic is of surpassing interest to parents and should be to teachers also since the problem of discipline is always present. This symposium is opened by "Just a plain Mother" who from her own experience as a child, a teacher and a mother concludes "I am afraid of the brutalizing effect of whipping in family life." The other contributors are Ernest R. Groves, John B. Watson, Douglass, A. Thom, Sidonie M. Gruenberg, Leta S. Hollingworth, and Dr. and Mrs. Blanton. The contribution from the Blantons is a quotation from their book on Child Guidance which has been already referred to in this column, and it deals with the benefits to be derived from spanking. Professor Hollingworth also justifies this severe method with the comment "Parents must be allowed to live, too!" While Dr. Thom says, "We have no quarrel with those who claim corporal punishment is occasionally of value in certain cases during the pre-school years," the trend of opinion through his and the other articles is against it. The following seem significant statements: Professor Groves—"The parent who is sympathetic and firm, clear in his explanation, and well disciplined himself, maintaining fellowship and building up in the child, through association, a spirit of genuine loyalty, neither spanks nor allows his child to be spanked." Dr. Watson—"Research and experimentation in psychology show that a child quickly learns to adopt desirable conduct when rewards are given for 'right' acts and punishment for 'Wrong' acts." Mrs. Gruenberg—"For the laying on of hands, in the classical sense, there is no place in modern educational theory." The series of articles gives a very complete study of corporal punishment and will be of value to all who deal with children in any capacity.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION in its issue of July–August–September presents a report of the 1928 Conference with a number of the addresses printed in full. Dr. Dewey's article on *Progressive Education and the Science of Education* is available also in pamphlet form. It is impossible to quote adequately from it as it is a complete presentation of this angle of the question of education and should be read in its entirety. Dr. Adolph Meyer on *Freedom and Discipline* says, "I wonder sometimes why there is such a zest for saving the child from becoming just a plain human being such as most of us are, subject alike to the laws of nature and the opportunities of growth and occasional blunder." Patty Smith Hill contributes an article on *The Home and The School as Centers of Child Life*. She says "Now as to our common aims in these two centers of child life. It seems to me we both want and have opportunity in different ways to develop wholesome, independent yet co-operating personalities and individualities." William Heard Kilpatrick's *Promising Educational Experiments* in the Far East is given and also Lucy Wilson's description of Russian education.

THE NEW ERA magazine devotes its July issue to *Progressive Education in England*, giving the opinions of Bernard Shaw, Norman Angell and Professor T. H. Pear. The opinion of Bernard Shaw is given, not in an article but as an interview with him. With

his well known views it is not surprising to find that he thinks "The bulk of men and women were ruined by education, the ordinary run of parents having very little idea of what real education was. . . . The 'worse abortionists' in the world, he thought were the people who try to mould children's characters." This seems rather a broadside at teachers generally but he says further "Children should, of course, be shown the necessity of learning the fundamentals, but they should in these be given some practical end to work towards." And again, "They should have freedom, but with that they should have a sense of law and order." It would be interesting for Mr. Shaw to tell us how one establishes these ideals without moulding character. He approves of experimental schools, while regretting that they are so expensive. "Mr Shaw said that he had nothing new to say on education, but that he was always glad to support in any way he could the people who were trying to make the public realize how inadequate the present system of education was as an introduction to modern life." Norman Angell writes on *Where Education Fails Most Obviously.* He says, "In so far as the acquisition of knowledge is deemed education, we must recognize that it is the capacity to interpret facts, to draw conclusions from them, to apply these conclusions to the ever new situations of daily life, which is important, not the facts themselves. . . . To believe the earth is flat is not socially so dangerous as to believe that the foreigner should send us 'money, not goods.'" Grace Owen contributes a report on *The Nursery School Movement in England.* Under the headings Establishment, Public Opinion, Characteristics, Country Holidays, Education, and Training of Staff, a picture is given of this movement in England with a list of schools and a brief description of each. She says that in England a step has been taken "which gives the nursery school a sure future, slow as development may have seemed for a time." Her conclusion is "this movement is one of the most significant and hopeful of our time, and thus sure of eventual fulfilment." It is interesting to note that she believes "The extension of franchise to women of 21 years of age will doubtless help the cause."

In the November Number

Individual Differences

Editor of Special Number, ADA HART ARLITT

CONTRIBUTORS

W. E. BLATZ
ARNOLD GESELL
HAROLD ELLIS JONES
OLGA ADAMS
WILLIAM HEARD KILPATRICK
MARY COVER JONES

FEATURES

Watch for: Another art article by Agnes Day—Stenographic report painting lesson—Laboratory section—Your contribution to *The Space for Free Speech* if you forward it within a week!

Who's Who in Childhood Education

Laura Frazee is Special Editor of this October issue. She had complete responsibility for the main articles which deal with *Individual Differences*. Miss Frazee also serves CHILDHOOD EDUCATION as a member of the Editorial Committee. The National Council of Primary Education has asked her to supply its bulletin with news notes of International Kindergarten Union activities. Since 1921 Miss Frazee has been Assistant Superintendent in charge of Kindergarten and Primary Education in the Baltimore public schools.

LAURA FRAZEE

Buford Johnson is Professor of Psychology in the Johns Hopkins University and Director of the Child Institute of the department of psychology. Among her publications are *Mental Growth of Children* and *A Study of Motor Abilities of Children in Kindergarten and Primary Grades*.

Ethel H. Bliss, primary teacher Lincoln School, has served as head of the American Kindergarten and Training School in Sofia, Bulgaria and Field Secretary of the Thossalmica Agriculture and Industrial Institute in Salomica, Greece.

E. M. Sipple is a member of the executive board of the Progressive Education Association. Because of his interest in work of a progressive nature he was called, in 1925, from the superintendency of schools in Burlington, Iowa to the directorship of the Park School.

John L. Stenquist has been Director, Bureau of Educational Research, Baltimore Public Schools since 1922. Dr. Stenquist is inventor of the *Stenquist Assembling Tests of Mechanical Ability*, *Stenquist Mechanical Aptitude Tests*, etc.

Edna Dean Baker, president National Kindergarten and Elementary College since 1920, is a contributing editor of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Miss Baker serves the International Kindergarten Union on the following committees: Advisory, Bureau of Education, Parental Education, and Committee of Nineteen.

Ella Victoria Dobbs, associate professor industrial arts, School of Fine Arts, University of Missouri, was one of the organizers of the National Council of Primary Education and served as its chairman for ten years.

Agnes Day, of the Geneseo State Teachers College, is Art Editor for CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. There will be four more articles in her series.

Gladys R. Cameron, second grade teacher, Fairview School, Seattle, is well-known in her community as a speaker at mothers and teachers club meetings.

W. C. Ruediger is Dean of the Teachers College, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.

The Space for Free Speech

"The encouragement to Free Speech which you give in the September issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION seems to me to promise as much as any other department in the magazine," says Dr. Ada Hart Arlitt, professor of Child Care and Training, University of Cincinnati. The thoughtful response from supervisors, training teachers, and classroom teachers to our first request indicates fulfilment of this promise.

The September issue of CHILDHOOD EDUCATION strikes a timely note in its emphasis on "beginning the school year right." The articles written on this topic are fine in spirit and might serve to help set a right attitude toward the beginning days. It seems regrettable, however, that the articles contain so little of concrete illustration and are so lacking in intellectual analysis of the problem. Miss Adams' article, *First Days in the Kindergarten*, makes some attempt to be concrete by giving a factual description of the first morning. Further development along the line of Miss Adams' article would probably have made the series of articles of greater value.

Case studies, such as that of *Julius and John*, are of value, but one might seriously question the prolonged period of "watchful waiting" that apparently took place before expert advice was used. *Colorful Literature for Children* is a delightful article, with its wealth of illustrations and appreciation of children's book needs. Perhaps the most practical article in the issue is *Housing the Nursery School*, since it gives in brief form the result of careful study of a need.—AGNES SNYDER, Head of the Department of Education, State Normal School, Towson, Maryland.

We appreciate Miss Snyder's kind criticism. Only by turning a searchlight on our weaknesses, can we hope to build a solid structure. Both Miss Snyder and her co-worker, Miss Morris, recognize the value of the Art-Literature-Music series introduced by Miss Dalgliesh:

Miss Dalgliesh in *Colorful Literature for Children* has given us splendid material. I am glad to see that we are to have two more articles from her of a similar nature. I feel that we need more articles in CHILDHOOD EDUCATION like those of Miss Adams and Miss Dalgliesh which give the primary teacher real concrete help.

.....

It is well for us to be reminded of the many adjustments the young child must make in entering school and of the part of the teacher and parent in helping the child to make this change as easily as possible. But it seems to me that the boy's experience in Mrs. Gesell's article is an extreme case.—MARGARET M. MORRIS, Kindergarten-primary Education, State Normal School, Towson, Maryland.

[A supervisor adds this sane suggestion to *The Student Becomes Teacher:*

The surest progress often takes place slowly. Young enthusiasm wants, as it should, to plunge into working for the most interesting results which it has experienced. It might be wise for the young teacher to learn before the first day of school, or cautiously to get the children to reveal, the type of methods which have been previously in use. If of a very conservative type it might be better to introduce at first only a few of the more important innovations instead of trying to make a complete radical change. This compromise might prevent the arousing of active antagonism on the part of parents and superiors and permit more easily the introduction of real progressive method when the teacher has been found a friend by children and adults.—L. A. P.

Reprints of articles by Miss Baker and Dr. Stenquist may be secured from the headquarters office of the International Kindergarten Union at 10 cents a copy, or 5 cents in lots of 25 or more.